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THE ECOLOGY OF THE FUNCTIONAL PSYCHOSES IN CHICAGO*

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STUDIES of the geographical distribution of social data go back for over a hundred years. Certain it is, that this technique as used by the modern social scientist is hardly a new one. However, improved statistical methods, more adequate, basic population data, and somewhat improved statistical records enable the modern social scientist to get a more accurate picture, quantitatively speaking, of any social phenomena which he may study. Many of those early studies were made by distributing a type of social data within the counties or provinces of a country or nation. Later studies attempted distributions within certain areas of the modern nineteenth century cities. In England, Mayhew attempted some early distribution studies with the city as a unit.¹ It is with Booth who studied economic and social stratification in London, that we get the beginning of the idea of the natural, circular growth of the city,² an idea which was later refined and improved by Burgess's attempt to delimit the so-called natural areas of the city and make the scheme applicable to all American cities,³ with the exception of certain local variations often due to topography.

These nineteenth century social scientists studied by the use of this method practically all of the social problems which are receiving attention by the modern students of social phenomena. However, there was no significant attempt to study insanity by this method, although there were some early statistical studies giving rates by areas or provinces within a country.⁴

* This is part of a more complete study on the ecology of mental disorder which is now being prepared for publication by R. E. Faris and H. W. Dunham. Read at the annual meeting, Chicago, December 29, 1936.

¹ H. Mayhew and J. Benny, *The Criminal Prisons in London*, London, Charles Griffin and Co., 1862.

² *Life and Labor of the People of London*, London, Williams and Margate, 1891.

³ R. E. Park and E. W. Burgess, *The City*, The University of Chicago Press, 1925, p. 50.

⁴ *Jour. of the Statist. Soc. of London*, 1851, 49-62; 1852, 250-256.

Otherwise, scientific men of the nineteenth century were definitely concerned with this problem, for there is ample evidence in the literature to prove the scientific interest in the study of mental disorder.⁵ The definite determination that the *spirochaeta pallida* was the cause of general paralysis in about 1897⁶ was the first great achievement in isolating a definite mental disease. During practically the entire nineteenth century, idiocy, alcoholism, moral insanity, melancholia, mania, dementia, and epilepsy constituted the chief diagnostic categories of mental disorder.⁷

While there was, as pointed out above, some attempts to compute insanity rates by areas within the countries, it is doubtful if much of this material was ever portrayed on maps. An early study of the geographical distribution of mental disorder was made by J. S. Sutherland⁸ in 1901. At about the same time in America, W. A. White presented a paper on the geographical distribution of insanity in the United States.⁹ While he presented no actual maps he pointed out, on the basis of his statistics, that the older and longer settled sections of the country had a much higher incidence of insanity than the newer and more recently settled sections. He also found that among the Negroes in the Southern states there was a much lower rate of insanity than among the Negroes in the Northern states. The fact that both men were concerned with all cases of insanity indicates the fact, even at this date, that any diagnostic category of mental disorder in use was hardly of significance for statistical manipulation.¹⁰

These scattered attempts at presenting and interpreting insanity rates for provinces within a geographical area, were the only studies purporting to investigate insanity in relation to the social milieu in which it developed. In the evolving scientific division of labor the study of mental disease and abnormality had come to be the exclusive concern of the medical men both in Europe and America. This resulted in the very definite tendency to study mental disease by the same methods as had been used in studying physical disease, and consequently this tended to hinder and restrict other

⁵ In this connection, it is interesting to note the establishment of numerous scientific journals in the European countries devoted to scientific inquiry into insanity. *The Journal of Mental Science, London*, was founded in 1855; the *Annales d'hygiène publique et de médecine légale* in Paris in 1829; *The Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease*, in America about 1873.

⁶ See A. Rosanoff, *Manual of Psychiatry*, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 6th ed., 1926, p. 270.

⁷ J. C. Bucknill and D. H. Tuke, *A Manual of Psychological Medicine*, Philadelphia, Blanchard and Lea, 1858, pp. 88-100.

⁸ "Geographical Distribution of Lunacy in Scotland," *Brit. Assn. for Adv. of Sci.*, Glasgow, September, 1901. See also W. R. McDermott, "The Topographical Distribution of Insanity," *Brit. Med. Jour.*, London, 1908, 950.

⁹ "Geographical Distribution of Insanity in the United States," *Jour. Nerv. and Ment. Disease*, 30, 1903, 257-279. Also see A. O. Wright, "The Increase of Insanity," *Conference of Charities and Corrections*, 1884, pp. 228-236.

¹⁰ Some statistics on the incidence of insanity by types are to be found in an article by P. Garnier, "La Folie à Paris," *Annales d'hygiène publique et de médecine légale*, 23, 1890, 5-44.

approaches to this problem. Since 1930, at the University of Chicago, certain ecological, statistical, and case studies have been made of certain types of mental disorder. This paper has for its purpose the presentation of the ecology of the two main functional psychoses in Chicago and a theoretical discussion of the implications of this ecological analysis.

As is well known, schizophrenia is the most frequently diagnosed mental disorder in the state hospitals throughout the country. This psychosis constitutes between twenty-five and forty percent of the first admissions to hospitals for mental disorders. The percentage varies throughout the United States.¹¹ Between 1922 and 1931, 7,253 persons from Chicago were admitted to the state hospitals for the first time and given a diagnosis of schizophrenia. Frequency rates for these cases were calculated for the local communities. For the population base of the rates, the estimated adult population of each community¹² in 1927, the middle year, is used.¹³ An ecological map of these rates indicates very definitely that schizophrenia shows a great variation in frequency in the different communities. The pattern formed by the rates is a regular and typical one¹⁴ and follows in the gradients of its rates Burgess's scheme of the circular growth of the city. The distribution of rates range from 111 in community 1, at the extreme northeast end of the city, to 1,195 in community 32, the loop, or central business district. The average rate is 289 and the median rate is 322, and these figures indicate that the bulk of the community rates are clustered at the low end of a skewed frequency distribution. In other words, there are a few communities close to the center of the city which have extremely high rates, while the great bulk of the communities have much lower rates. The highest rates for schizophrenia are in the hobohemia, the rooming-house,

¹¹ *Mental Patients in State Hospitals*, 1928, Washington, D. C., Bureau of the Census.

¹² The local communities, as worked out by the Local Community Research Council at the University of Chicago, were used as a basis for these rates. Some of the communities which contained populations too small to be used as a basis for reliable rates were combined with adjoining areas and three of the communities near the center of the city were sub-divided. In this manner, the city was divided so that each community contains reasonably homogeneous characteristics and yet has a sufficiently large population to make possible reliable rates. Rates on some of the maps presented in this paper are distributed in the 120 sub-communities of Chicago which are merely a further refinement of the census tracts. The use of these sub-communities makes possible a somewhat finer discrimination of the differences to be found in the various parts of the city.

¹³ The use of the adult population is not a perfect adjustment, of course, for age, but since there are few persons under twenty-one years of age in the schizophrenic group, the adjustment is probably adequate for the purpose. It should be noted that in those maps showing the distribution of cases in the 120 sub-communities of the city, there has been a closer refinement for age and these rates are based on the population fifteen years and over. It should also be noted that the rates in the more detailed 120 sub-communities are average rates as contrasted to total rates in the local communities.

¹⁴ The phrase, "a regular and typical pattern" as used in this paper means one in which the high rates for given phenomena are to be found at the center of the city with the rates declining in every direction as one approaches the periphery. For a good example of such a pattern see C. R. Shaw, *Delinquency Areas*, University of Chicago Press, 1929.

and the foreign-born communities close to the center of the city. There are no glaring exceptions to this regular pattern. The noticeable rise of the rates in the South Chicago region is consistent with the regular pattern for Chicago, as these communities represent areas of some social disorganization due to their close approximation to the steel factories. In addition to the concentration of the rates in those communities close to the center of the city, it is significant to note the order of the rates in the South Side Negro belt. The three Negro areas in this belt extending south of the loop have rates of 662, 470, and 410 respectively. All of these rates are higher than the average and median rates and decline in a regular manner, similar to the rates on other radial lines from the city's center, and so tend to negate any theories in relation to race as a factor in schizophrenia. If race were a significant factor, there seems to be no legitimate reason why there should be such wide variations in the rates in these communities in which ninety percent of the population are Negroes.

Among these cases of schizophrenia, the males are slightly more numerous than the females, the ratio being 117 males to 100 females.¹⁵ This would indicate that the factor of sex has some significance in connection with schizophrenia. However, in a study of the distribution of the male and female schizophrenic rates separately, there appears to be no radical deviation in the expected pattern.

Of the 7,253 cases, 3,916 are males. The rates range from 79 in community 1, to 1,416 in community 32. These are the same communities which form the extremes in the distribution of total schizophrenia. The average rate is 396 and the median rate is 365. This indicates the same type of frequency distribution as was noted in the distribution of the total schizophrenic rates.

The distribution of female rates, based on 3,337 cases, also shows a similar wide range. The lowest rate is 130 in community 8A, the Gold Coast, and the highest rate is 932 in community 28A, a hoboemia community directly west of the central business district. The average rate is 367 and the median rate is 312, and so a similar skewed frequency distribution is in evidence. This distribution of the female schizophrenic rates is typical of the other two, with approximately three exceptions. These three exceptions in the regularity of the pattern are to be found in community 32, which has an extremely low rate, and in communities 17 and 56 ±¹⁶ which have un-

¹⁵ The sex ratio in the estimated adult population used as the basis for the rates is 105 males to 100 females. There is, then, a real excess of schizophrenics among the males, a fact which is also true of the total number of schizophrenics in the United States. See *Mental Patients in State Hospitals*, Washington, D. C., Bureau of the Census, 1928, p. 12. See also H. M. Pollock, "Frequency of Schizophrenia in Relation to Sex, Age, Environment, Nativity, and Race," *Schizophrenia—An Investigation of Most Recent Advances*, Reported by the Association for Research in Nervous and Mental Diseases, New York, Paul B. Hoeber, Inc., 1928.

¹⁶ This community, 56 ±, refers to the fact that the local communities 56, 57, 62, 64, and 65 were combined to form one community.

expected high rates. It is difficult to explain away these exceptions. However, it can be noted that in community 32, the central business district, the hoboemia community contributes practically all of the male cases, and that there are practically no desirable places for women to live in this community. The total number of women in the population is extremely low. There were ninety-eight male schizophrenic cases found in this community and only three female schizophrenic cases. These female cases included a maid at an expensive club on Michigan Boulevard, a resident of a first-class hotel, and a resident of a cheap hotel of a disorderly character on Wabash Avenue. The position of these three exceptional communities tends to reduce the resulting coefficient of correlation between the male and female schizophrenic rates to $.59 \pm .07$. It is interesting to note that the sex ratio in the total schizophrenic group holds true for the high-rate schizophrenic areas as well as for the city as a whole. In the upper quartile of seventeen communities, the schizophrenic sex ratio is 143 to 100, while the sex ratio of the population in this area is only 130 males to 100 females.

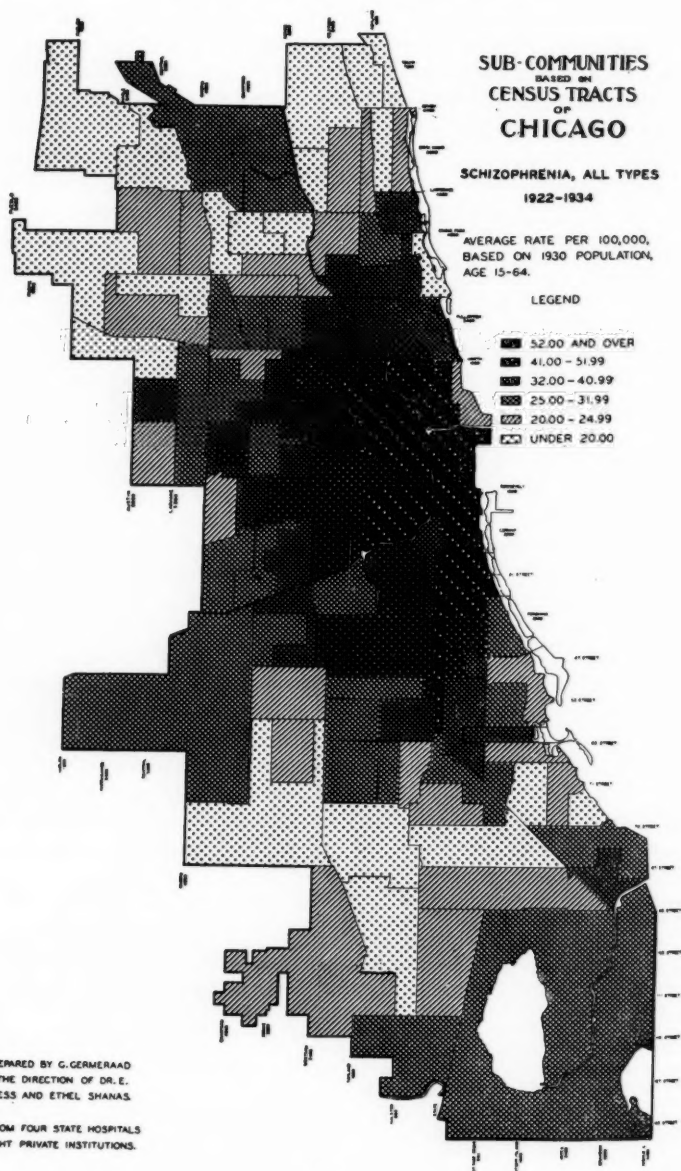
Because of the limitations of space, the distribution of the rates for the separate types of schizophrenia are not discussed here,¹⁷ but it is sufficient to point out that they all show heavy concentration in the disorganized areas of the city and present the familiar skewed frequency distribution, such as was noted in the distribution of the total schizophrenic cases. The paranoid and hebephrenic distributions of rates are similar to the distribution of total schizophrenic rates. However, the catatonic distribution of rates does not follow the pattern of the other types, although it does show a definite concentration of rates in certain of the disorganized areas of the city, notably the foreign-born and Negro communities.

In addition to the distribution of the above schizophrenic rates, the case data which constitute these distributions, with the addition of three more years, have been distributed in the 120 sub-communities of Chicago.¹⁸ The distribution of the average yearly rate based on a total of 10,575 schizophrenic cases is shown in Map I.¹⁹ The range of rates in this distribution is

¹⁷ See H. W. Dunham, *A Study of the Distribution of Six Major Psychoses in the Local Community Areas of Chicago*. (Master's Dissertation), University of Chicago, 1935.

¹⁸ The opportunity to distribute these data in the 120 sub-communities was provided by the setting up of a W.P.A. project to study the trend of mental disease during the depression years. This project is sponsored by the State Psychopathic Institute of the Department of Public Welfare, State of Illinois. Dr. H. D. Singer of the Psychopathic Institute and Drs. Wirth and Burgess of the University of Chicago, served as advisers for the project.

¹⁹ It should be noted that the total case basis in these maps showing distributions by sub-communities include private hospital cases as well as state hospital cases. In the schizophrenic distribution, the private hospital cases are negligible, amounting in all to 13.7 percent of the total, while in the following manic-depressive distribution, the private hospital cases amount to exactly fifty percent of the total, a large enough percentage to effect the character of the distribution pattern. However, while there is a difference in the distribution of manic-depressive rates, when the cases from state and private hospitals are distributed separately (Pearsonian $r = -.06 \pm .10$), this does not affect the conclusions set forth in this paper.



MAP I

from 14 in community 92, an apartment and two flat area, to 150 in community 74, the central business district, with a median rate of 30.1 and an average rate of 34.6. The same skewed frequency distribution, as was noted in the previous distribution of schizophrenic rates, is also in evidence; likewise, the same concentration of rates is noticed, with the high average rates falling at the center of the city and the low rates on the periphery; the highest rates are to be found in the hobohemia, rooming house, foreign-born and Negro communities.

The objective findings in connection with the ecology of schizophrenia can be stated as follows: (1) The high rates for total schizophrenia are concentrated in communities of marked social disorganization in Chicago. (2) The distribution of the male and female schizophrenic rates separately show the same concentration in the disorganized communities of the city. (3) The distribution of rates show the same pattern and concentration by both local and sub-communities. (4) The high rates for paranoid and hebephrenic schizophrenia are concentrated also in these extremely socially disorganized communities in a similar fashion to the total group. The correlation coefficient between paranoid and hebephrenic schizophrenia is $.75 \pm .05$. (5) The high rates for catatonic schizophrenia are concentrated mainly in the foreign-born and Negro communities. While this distribution is different from the other types because of the paucity of the catatonics in the rooming-house communities of the city, nevertheless, a definite concentration of rates is noted. (6) The rates for the three types of schizophrenic, as well as the rates for the total schizophrenic series show a skewed frequency distribution, with the bulk of the communities having low rates and a few of the communities at the center of the city having high rates.

While these different distributions of schizophrenic rates present an interesting comparison within themselves, they attain an additional significance when compared with the other main functional psychosis, manic-depressive. Because the diagnostic problems in the functional disorders are so great, a study of the distribution of the manic-depressive group might be significant in ascertaining whether or not any real distinction between them has been made. A preliminary distribution of manic-depressive rates was computed from a base of 734 cases, of which 296 were males and 438 were females. The sex ratio of 68 males to 100 females is very different from the sex ratio in the schizophrenic group. The range of rates is low as compared to any of the schizophrenic distributions, the rates varying from 8 in community 59, an area of second immigrant settlement, to 84 in community 28C,²⁰ a foreign-born section. The average rate is 37 and the

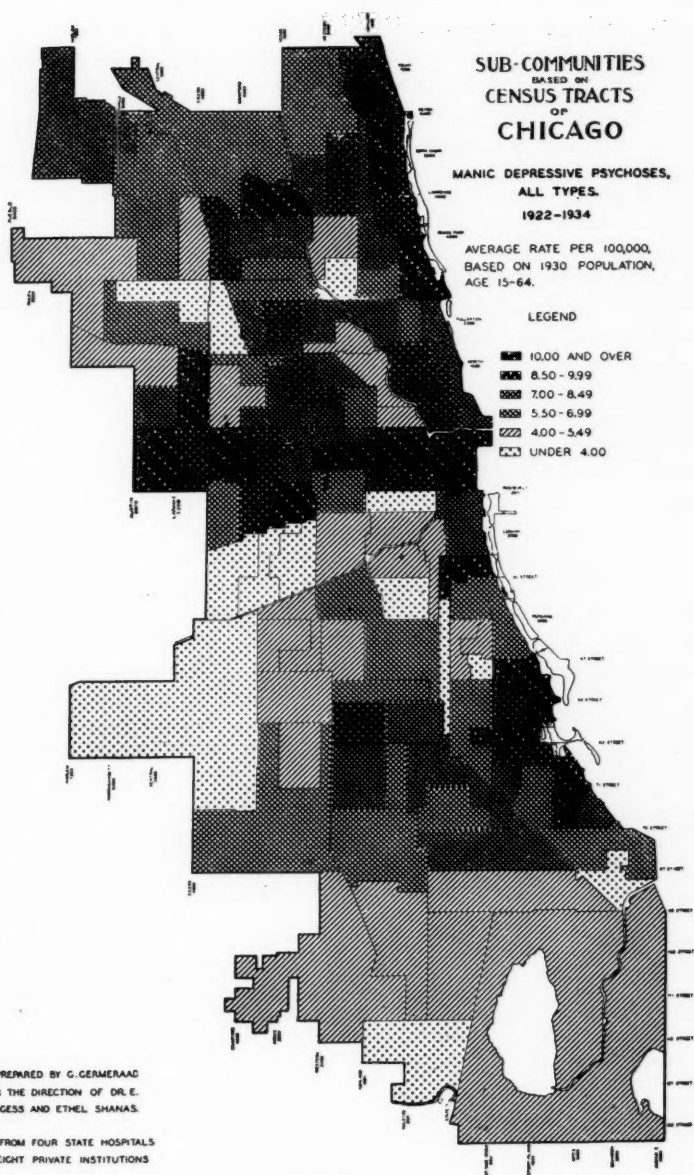
²⁰ The female catatonic group with approximately the same number of cases (711) has a much greater range, varying from zero in community 2, to 222 in community 24A. This indicates again the skewed distribution in any schizophrenic sample as contrasted to a manic-depressive sample.

median is 37, and this indicates that the characteristic skewness of the schizophrenic distributions is lacking. This distribution shows no marked concentration of the high rates close to the center of the city. In fact, far from being regular, the pattern of rates might be described as random. It is significant to note that while the highest rate is in a community near the center of the city, it is bordered by communities which have both low and median rates. This distribution, therefore, is different in many respects from the schizophrenic distributions which have been examined.

Because of the low case basis in the above distribution of manic-depressive rates, it seemed particularly desirable to study a distribution of rates based on a larger number of cases. The distribution of such rates in the sub-communities of Chicago is shown in Map II, based on 2,311 cases. As might be expected from the preliminary distribution, there is an absence of the typical pattern. In this distribution, the rates range from 1.5 in community 70, a two-flat and single-home area, to 19.3 in community 74, the central business district. The median rate is 6.9 and the average rate is 7.2. The high rates show no semblance of a pattern in their distribution throughout the city. There are high rates at the center of the city and there are also some high rates on the periphery. This is very much at variance from any of the schizophrenic distributions where, as has been shown, there is a complete absence of high rates in the outlying communities of the city. Again, the very definite lack of skewness in the manic-depressive frequency distribution is to be noted.

When the rates for each sex of the manic-depressive group are distributed in the sub-communities, the same random pattern is in evidence. The patterns are also random to each other as evidenced by a coefficient of correlation of $.33 \pm .08$. This contrasts quite sharply with the relatively high correlation figure obtained when the schizophrenic rates by sex are considered together.

When the manic-depressive cases are separated into their respective types of manic and depressed, and are distributed in the 120 sub-communities, the distribution of the rates in each type still forms a random pattern, although somewhat dissimilar to the random pattern formed when the types are combined together. In other words, not only is there a random pattern formed by the total case basis of the manic-depressive rates, but the pattern is also random when either one of the two chief types in this diagnostic category are considered separately. The distribution of rates for each type is not only random in itself but is random when compared with the other type. In fact, the coefficient of correlation between them is $.104 \pm .10$. This figure still remains low when the rates by sex, for each type, are correlated together, the coefficient being $.15 \pm .09$, when the male manic rates are considered with the male depressed rates, and $.30 \pm .08$ when the



MAP II

female manic rates are correlated with the female depressed rates.²¹ These low correlation figures tell a story in themselves when compared with the correlation figures presented for schizophrenia, by sex and type, where high correlations are in evidence.

The objective findings in connection with the ecology of the manic-depressive psychoses can be stated as follows: (1) The pattern formed by the rates is a random one. Both high and low rates are distributed in no systematic fashion throughout the city. (2) The distribution for male and female manic-depressive rates separately show the same random and unsystematic distribution. (3) The distribution of rates show the same random pattern for both local and sub-communities. (4) The rates for the separate types of manic and depressed are also extremely random in their distribution. (5) While the addition of the private hospital cases tends to change the distribution of the rates in the city, the elimination of these cases does not change the random pattern of the distribution. (6) All of the distribution of manic-depressive rates show an absence of skewness in their frequency distribution, with approximately the same number of communities having high rates as low rates.

That there is a vast difference between the distribution of rates in these two main functional psychoses is to be seen again when they are correlated together. The distribution of the rates for these two mental disorders in the 68 local communities of Chicago has a correlation of $.37 \pm .10$. When the rates of these two psychoses in the 120 sub-communities are correlated, the coefficient figure is $.24 \pm .08$. In other words, it appears that when any sample of schizophrenic cases is distributed, there is a definite pattern which follows the ecological structure of the city, while when any sample of manic-depressive cases is distributed, there is no pattern formed which fits into this ecological scheme of the city.

Further evidence on this point can be seen when the rates of these two mental disorders are correlated with certain indices of social life. In the second set of distributions of these two functional disorders, a correlation was effected between the respective rates and a housing index for the sub-

²¹ The scantiness of the cases in the manic-depressive group throw some question on the reliability of the rates by sex and by type. See Frank A. Ross, "Ecology and the Statistical Method," *Amer. Jour. Sociol.*, 38, January 1933, 507-522. Also see the reply to this criticism by C. C. Peters, "Note on a Misconception of Statistical Significance," *ibid.*, 39, September 1933, 231-236. Ross examined Faris's insanity rates for the city of Chicago and pointed out that the number of cases used in the study were too few and that the distribution pattern might be due to chance. However, when he combined areas and made a test with an error formula for determining the significance or non-significance of rates between different communities, he concluded that the pattern could not be due to chance alone. In the schizophrenic series the case basis has been so increased that it would seem that criticism on this point has been sufficiently answered. In the manic-depressive series, while the case basis is still rather low and the same criticism might be made as to this pattern, it would seem from the other statistical evidence that there is a marked difference in the pattern of the rates as compared to the schizophrenic pattern.

communities. For this index the percentage ratio of hotels, apartments, and apartment hotels to the total number of dwellings in the sub-communities was used. The manic-depressive distribution correlated with this index $.50 \pm .07$. When the manic-depressive cases from private hospitals are eliminated, and this index is correlated with the rates based upon a distribution of only manic-depressive state hospital cases, the correlation figure drops to $.08 \pm .10$. The distribution of schizophrenic rates in the sub-communities of the city correlate with this housing index $-.12 \pm .09$.

Other indices tend to bring out the differences in the distribution in these two functional psychoses. If one takes as an index of cultural level the median school grade reached by the population in any sub-community and correlates it with the manic-depressive rates, the resulting coefficient is $.44 \pm .07$. When this index is correlated with the schizophrenic rates, the resulting coefficient figure is $-.47 \pm .07$. This would seem to indicate a tendency for the manic-depressive cases to come from those urban areas with a fairly high cultural level. The negative correlation in connection with schizophrenia indicates exactly the opposite. This same situation is noted when correlating these rates with an index of economic level in the sub-communities. For such an index, the median monthly rental paid by families for housing in the community was taken. This index correlates with the manic-depressive rates at $.41 \pm .08$, and with the schizophrenic rates at $-.51 \pm .07$.

It was pointed out above in a footnote that in the second sample of manic-depressive cases, exactly fifty percent were admitted to public hospitals and fifty percent were admitted to private hospitals. This high percentage of private hospital cases in the manic-depressive group stands in sharp contrast to the low percentage of schizophrenic cases admitted to private hospitals. This high percentage of private hospital cases in the former group might be explained by either one of two conditions. First, there is a tendency for the private hospital to give the most hopeful diagnosis for the benefit of relatives which, of course, means, according to traditional psychiatry, a manic-depressive diagnosis.²² Secondly, it is possible that there may be a real selection of manic-depressive cases by the private hospitals. Some psychiatrists in the Chicago area feel that the former condition is the true one. However, there is some evidence in this study to indicate that the second condition is somewhat more than a remote possibility. While the pattern of manic-depressive rates in any distribution of such cases does appear to be extremely random, the correlation coefficients, with certain selective indices, does indicate the tendency of the manic-depressive cases to come from a higher social and economic level in

²² In reference to this point it may be of some significance to note that in the psychoneurotic series 67 percent of the cases were admitted to private hospitals and only 33 percent to the state hospitals.

contrast with the schizophrenic cases. Some additional evidence on this point, similar to that presented above, is obtained by contrasting the manic-depressive patients with the schizophrenic patients, in terms of median rentals paid in the sub-communities. Over half of all the manic-depressive cases corrected for the population factor come from communities in the city which pay a median rental of \$61.68 or above, while half of the schizophrenic cases, corrected for the population factor, come from communities which pay a median rental of \$33.45 or above. There is no doubt that the excessive numbers of private hospital cases in the manic-depressive group tend to increase markedly this median rental figure. When the private hospital cases are eliminated, however, it is found that the remaining manic-depressive cases which are now entirely state hospital cases, come from communities where the median rental is \$43.44 or above. This rental figure is still considerably higher than the rental figure of one-half the schizophrenic cases, where the private hospital cases were not eliminated. There is, then, apparently a definite tendency for the manic-depressive patients to come from a higher income group than the schizophrenic patients.

From this comparative study of the distribution of these two main functional psychoses, and their relation to certain indices of social life, the following conclusions might be briefly stated: (1) A comparison of the distribution of the rates of the schizophrenic and manic-depressive psychoses shows them to be unlike each other in almost every respect. (2) The schizophrenic rates show the typical ecological pattern and are concentrated in the disorganized areas of the city, while the manic-depressive rates do not show a typical pattern nor any definite concentration in the disorganized and poverty-stricken areas of the city. (3) There is a tendency, although not clearly defined, for the manic-depressive cases to come from a higher cultural and economic level as compared with the schizophrenic cases. (4) The schizophrenic rates show a skewed frequency distribution, while the manic-depressive rates show no such skewness in their distribution.

While this ecological and statistical evidence may not be conclusive, it does appear that there is some real distinction in the distribution of these two functional disorders in Chicago. How far this will hold true of other American cities is problematical. Every psychiatrist realizes that the diagnostic problems in the functional disorders are great, and the question can be raised as to whether anything is gained by making distributions of cases falling in these two categories, when the percent of diagnostic error is so high. The percent of error in the present data probably ranges from 30 to 40 percent—estimates given by the psychiatrists themselves. Even with this high percentage of error, the number of cases is large enough in each sample to assert that the pattern of rates in these two psychoses is a fairly

reliable one. While it is necessary to be cautious about interpreting these data, certain implications can, with some justification, be pointed out. The random pattern in the manic-depressive distribution, in juxtaposition to the typical pattern in the schizophrenic distribution, would seem to imply that some valid distinction has been made in classification. From this implication, others follow. Chief of these might be the implication that the environment is a very potent factor in the etiology of the schizophrenic disorder, but that it plays no part in the manic-depressive disorder. It would then follow that, if environmental factors are not significant in manic-depressive, there is a certain justification for asserting the priority of hereditary and constitutional factors. This, of course, would be in line with the statistical studies of heredity in the functional psychoses which universally show that biological inheritance is more significant in manic-depressive than in schizophrenia. Even though there is a great difference between the patterns of rates of the two psychoses, it does not necessarily follow that the schizophrenic psychosis bears a definite relation to the environment and the manic-depressive psychosis does not. Both may be connected with different types of social processes. It is only that in the case of the schizophrenic pattern this connection appears to be more definitely established. A possible sociological explanation of the manic-depressive pattern might be found in the suggestion that precipitating factors are causal ones in relation to these psychoses.²³ Such precipitating factors occur in all social and economic levels of life and, consequently, are not so likely to have a definite connection with the community situation, but rather with the interplay of personality and psychological factors of family relationships and intimate personal contacts. An explanation of the high rates of schizophrenia in the extremely disorganized areas of the city has been made by stating that persons with schizophrenic tendencies or pre-dispositions drift down into these areas. If this hypothesis is a correct one, the implication would seem to follow from the evidence presented that the manic-depressives do not drift at all or at least show no tendency to drift into the disorganized areas of city life. These suggested implications are only intended to point the way toward additional research. First, however, it will be necessary to establish beyond a shadow of doubt that there is a difference in the distribution of these two functional disorders as outlined in this paper. Diagnostic problems still make this thesis somewhat uncertain. The study of the distribution of these two functional disorders in other American cities would appear to be the next step in this ecological research.

²³ On this point, see C. A. Bonner, "Psychogenic Factors as Causation Agents in Manic-Depressive Psychoses," *Manic-Depressive Psychoses—Recent Advances*, reported by the Association for Research in Nervous and Mental Disease, vol. XI, pp. 121-130; M. J. Brew, "Precipitating Factors in the Manic-depressive Psychoses," *The Psychiatric Quarterly*, 7, July, 1933, 401-410; and J. H. Travis, "Precipitating Factors in the Manic-Depressive Psychoses," *ibid.*, 411-418.

THE CULTURAL SITUATION AS A CONDITION FOR THE ACHIEVEMENT OF FAME

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THE ACTIVITIES of men in relation to other men and to things produce the happenings and events of history. These events when grouped will be found to occur in greater number for certain periods than others. This grouping may in part be due to the way histories are written, the directions in which historical research has been conducted, and the action of the vicissitudes of time upon the preservation of past records and monuments. But behind all these accidental causes which tend to make it impossible to compile accurate annals of everything that has happened in the past, there lies a whole complex of relationships. These are not all equally fixed, as is seen in the fact that sometimes they become more numerous and complicated than at other times, that is, the activities of getting a living and maintaining life are quickened and enriched or made more difficult and uncertain by the occurrence of wars, pestilence, famine, earthquakes, new inventions, changes in the established forms of social intercourse, the emergence of new ideas, religious beliefs, and political organizations. Events or happenings of this nature rapidly alter the relationships of men to one another and to things, and it is out of these changes that the conditions appear which make men famous.

These changed relationships constitute the accidents of history or of time, so far as the individual is concerned. No individual has ever been fortunate enough to dictate when he shall be born, but the fact that he was born at one time and not at another is all important in determining whether he is to die in obscurity or whether his name is to be emblazoned from housetops, other things remaining the same. No group of famous men illustrates this fact better than soldiers and sailors. Careful analysis of the distribution of the birth dates of eminent British soldiers and sailors, for example, discloses the fact that a major conflict or quick succession of conflicts involved England about thirty years after the appearance of each birth galaxy. Out of the total number of persons who would ordinarily have become famous as peace-time administrators, military governors, explorers, writers on military subjects and the like, another group, and much more heterogeneous in character, was brought in to share the glories of war in recognition for bravery in battle or in response to the need for more leaders.

There is nothing very original about this observation, to be certain. This particular instance of the association of fame with the accidents of history or the cultural situation has been frequently observed, and even extended to include demagogues and politicians. Statesmen have usually been

omitted from this classification on the score that true administrative ability requires exceptional talents; in other words, great statesmen are born, not made. But even so, great statesmen like great soldiers come in groups. When we leave these classes of activities there is no question but that all kinds of famous men owe their eminence to genius or inherited ability. But again, as in the case of soldiers, demagogues, and politicians, we find that all great men of whatever kind tend to come in groups and carry on almost identical pursuits; that is, they fight in the same wars, if not in the same battles.

To lend factual support to this statement, it is proposed to select a group of distinguished men for study which by common consent has been included in that category of eminent persons who do not derive their fame from an accident of history. The group selected was the eminent botanists whose biographies appear in the English *Dictionary of National Biography*. No particular significance should be attached to the selection of this group for consideration other than that it adequately meets the requirements of the study itself. These requirements are, first, that the activity to be considered should not include a list of names too large to be conveniently handled; second, that the biographies should cover a considerable time-span; and third, that the bulk of the data should fall in recent times to insure fairly complete records.

The total number of persons appearing in the *Dictionary* who can be classified as botanists is 242, of which 43 were born between 1500 and 1700. Since the date of birth of the botanists born before 1700 is so frequently not known, and because the period as such, while considered by the historians of the science in many respects far in advance of the one that immediately followed, embraces too few cases, all persons born before this time were eliminated. This leaves 199 persons living between 1700 and 1920 which were classified (Table I) by period of birth, beginning of flourishing period, period of death, and the total number flourishing in each decade.

A study of the data on time of birth and death, including the data on the beginning of the flourishing period, but exclusive of the data on the total number of botanists flourishing in each decade (column f), shows that the British botanists born since 1700 fall into two activity periods. More particularly, from the results showing the number of botanists who began to flourish in each decade (column d), because this date could be determined with considerable accuracy within the limits of a ten-year period, we find that the first activity period falls between the years 1730 and 1800, and the second from 1810 to 1880. The inference must not, however, be drawn from these data that the actual number of botanists declined in the decade 1800-09. On the contrary, the total number of botanists flourishing continued to increase until 1850 (column f).

For purposes of checking the distributions obtained from the *Dictionary*

list of eminent botanists, a list of the known birth dates of the botanists appearing in Britten and Bougler's *Index*¹ was compiled, along with the

TABLE I. BIRTH, DEATH, AND FLOURISHING DATES OF BOTANISTS
APPEARING IN THE *Dictionary of National Biography*

Period	Birth dates known (a)	Birth dates not known but calculated (b)	Total birth dates (c)	Beginning of flourishing period (d)	Total death dates (e)	Cumulative dates (f)
1700-09	1	1	2			
1710-19	4	1	5			
1720-29	2		2			
1730-39	9	1	10	2		2
1740-49	17	2	19	1		3
1750-59	12	3	15	5		8
1760-69	18	4	22	8	1	16
1770-79	6	2	8	8	6	23
1780-89	11	2	13	25	2	42
1790-99	20	4	24	22	10	62
1800-09	25	2	27	10	10	62
1810-19	25		25	20	12	72
1820-29	9		9	21	18	81
1830-39	9		9	33	16	96
1840-49	7		7	21	23	101
1850-59	2		2	6	14	84
1860-69				8	20	78
1870-79				7	21	65
1880-89				2	26	46
1890-99					7	20
1900-09					11	13
1910-19					2	2
Total	177	22	199	199	199	

birth dates of the botanists discussed by J. Reynolds Green² and all those appearing in the "Chronology" appended to the same work (Table II).

A study of the distribution obtained from the *Index* (column c) reveals the same general tendency as was observed for the *Dictionary* list, excepting that the magnitude of the decline is not so great. This was to be expected, the less highly selected the data the more regular the dispersion, unless, of course, the period of decreased activity has a long duration or the interruption is a violent one. On the other hand, the distributions obtained from Green's *History of Botany* fall into two sharply defined galaxies. The period of decreased activity represented by births extends over three decades in the list obtained from the text (column a), or from 1760-89. The period of

¹ James Britten and George S. Bougler, *A Biographical Index of Deceased British and Irish Botanists*, 2d ed., rev. by A. B. Rendle, London, 1931.

² J. Reynolds Green, *A History of Botany in the United Kingdom from the Earliest Times to the End of the 19th Century*, London, 1914.

decreased activity in the distribution obtained from the birth dates appearing in the "Chronology" (column b) endures for fifty years, or from 1740-89. Closer study of this last distribution also discloses that the first galaxy forms about the decade 1730-39, or thirty years earlier than for the *Dictionary* distribution of birth dates (Table I, column c), and twenty years earlier than for the distribution obtained from the birth dates given in the text of Green's *History of Botany* (Table II, column a).

TABLE II. NUMBER OF BOTANISTS IN GREEN'S *History* AND BRITTEN AND BOUGLER'S *Index* BY PERIOD OF BIRTH

Period	Green		Britten and Bougler <i>Index</i> * (c)
	Text (a)	Chronology (b)	
1700-09			10
1710-19	3	1	27
1720-29	1	2	32
1730-39	8	8	44
1740-49	6	5	62
1750-59	9	4	66
1760-69	4	2	88
1770-79	8	3	74
1780-89	6	3	103
1790-99	10	9	142
1800-09	10	8	185
1810-19	13	8	241
1820-29	5	3	226
1830-39	1	4	203
1840-49	2	2	148
1850-59	2		111
Total	88	62	1762

* Includes only those cases for whom the birth date is given.

So far, then, there can be no question but that there occurred a period in the history of British botany, the duration depending upon how rigidly the names considered are selected, when there were fewer persons born who became famous botanists than for the period immediately preceding or following. Also, it is improbable that any considerations of race or breed could be involved in this decline, for the period from 1700 to 1800 marks on the whole a rise in the relative number of eminent Englishmen born.

We are now confronted with this fact: Beginning with 1790 and lasting until 1829 fewer young men engaged in botanical pursuits which led to eminence than either immediately before or after this time. There is a very important series of events connected with this fact. The period of decreased activity comes at the end of the influence of Linnaeus upon British botany. The outstanding followers of Linnaeus were either all dead by this time or old men, and their places were being taken by younger men of another

school—Robert Brown (1773–1865), William Jackson Hooker (1785–1865), John Lindley (1799–1865), and George Bentham (1800–1884). In a sense, then, the period of decreased activity in British botany represents an age of transition from one system of plant classification to another, that is, from the Linnean or artificial system to the French or natural system.

A more careful inspection of the data reveals that the decline in the number of botanists who began to flourish after 1780–89 cannot be accounted for in this fashion. For while the decade 1790–99 roughly divides one age of botanical activity from another, all individuals in the earlier period were not propagandists for Linnaeus's views. Many, in fact, most of those who began to flourish before 1790–99, so far as the biographies show, were not involved in the Linnean controversy. The small group which was is indicated most clearly in the first galaxy appearing in the data obtained from Green's "Chronology" (Table II, column b). It includes Professor John Hope (1725–1819) of Edinburgh, Richard Pulteney (1730–1810), the historian of English botany during the Linnean period; William Aiton (1731–1793), head gardener at Kew; Professor Thomas Martyn (1735–1810), of Cambridge; William Hudson (1730?–1793), the first to successfully adapt the Linnean nomenclature to the plants described by John Ray in his *Synopsis*; and Daniel Charles Solander (1736–1782), favorite pupil of Linnaeus. The remainder were all collectors and compilers of flora, whose activities would doubtless have continued regardless of the system of classification in use.

The statement can be demonstrated in two ways. First, the birth dates of the botanists found in the *Dictionary* (Table I, column c) falling during the Linnean period (before 1780–89) form two galaxies, one coming in 1740–49 and the second in 1760–69. The list of names obtained from the text of Green's *History of Botany* shows a like division (Table II, column a), although here the first galaxy forms in the decade 1730–39 and corresponds with the single grouping formed before 1760–69 by the data obtained from the "Chronology" (Table II, column b). Both these lesser groupings are the result of the influence of Linnaeus on the course of British botany. This influence may be regarded in the strictest sense as an intrusion, resulting in an acceleration in the number of botanists who made their appearance during an interval of about twenty or thirty years. The second galaxy formed before the period of decreased activity was owing to other causes.

In the second place, a consideration of the particular branches of botanical activity which occupied the attention of botanists found in the *Dictionary* shows that all declined simultaneously, although there appears no necessary connection or dependence of one upon the other. The number who devoted themselves to British flora dropped off abruptly after 1790–99 and did not again increase until 1830–39 (Table III, column a). The

number of botanists interested in foreign flora also declined suddenly, but a decade earlier (column b). Even the few who worked with cryptogams (column c) decreased after 1790-99, notwithstanding the fact that the interest itself had just begun to appear.

TABLE III. BRITISH BOTANISTS BY ACTIVITY GROUPS

Beginning of flourishing period	Collectors and compilers of British flora (a)	Collectors and compilers of colonial and foreign flora (b)	Collectors and compilers of flowerless plants (cryptogams) (c)	Demonstra- tors, teachers, directors, botanical artists, etc. (d)	Total (e)
1730-39		1		1	2
1740-49	1				1
1750-59	3	1		1	5
1760-69	3		1	4	8
1770-79	1	3		4	8
1780-89	6	8	3	8	25
1790-99	11	2	5	4	22
1800-09	3	2	1	4	10
1810-19	4	9	2	5	20
1820-29	3	10	1	7	21
1830-39	7	9	7	10	33
1840-49	7	8	3	3	21
1850-59	2	2	1	1	6
1860-69		5	1	2	8
1870-79	1		3	3	7
1880-89			1	1	2
Total	52	60	29	58	199

It would be disregarding these facts to assert that the transition period from one classificatory scheme to another was directly responsible for the decline in the number of botanists who began to flourish after 1780-89, and notably so when there is no biographical evidence to indicate that any large number of persons who became eminent enough to appear in the *Dictionary* were mentioned because of the part they played in the "quarrel" concerning the merits of the natural system over the artificial system. Indeed, the two systems of classification which were struggling for mastery were themselves efforts on the part of botanists to accommodate the changes which were daily taking place in man's knowledge of the flora of the world.

In continuing the search undertaken, a comparison was made of the temporal distribution of all biologists found in the *Dictionary*, including agriculturists, horticulturists, farm husbandmen, and stock-breeders, with botanists (Chart I).³

³ The distribution for naturalists includes only those cases where the birth date is known.

The first thing to be observed from a study of the separate profiles and the one drawn from all the data combined is that the period of decreased activity which was observed for botanists alone is also characteristic for all other groups. This is of particular significance in that only the biological sciences show a period of decreased activity after 1750-59. A profile drawn from the birth dates of physical scientists found in the *Dictionary* shows no such period of decreased activity.

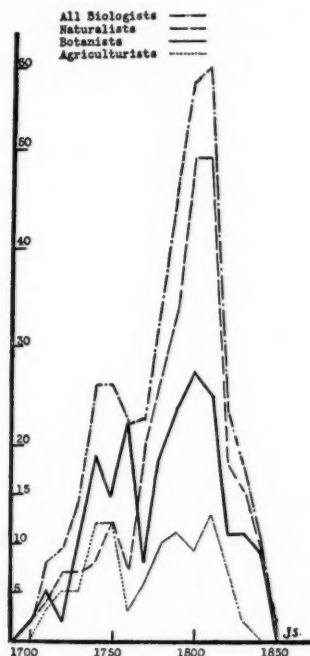


CHART I. BRITISH BIOLOGISTS.

The reason for this period of decreased activity lies in the nature of the life sciences during this time. Unlike today, biology was not a laboratory activity—not in England at any event. The activities of these men whom we have designated as biologists were, with few exceptions, all directed toward making museum collections of living things, that is, assembling curiosities, or making collections for utilitarian ends. They were all taxonomists, and the flourishing condition of this interest in terms of the number persons who could achieve fame was dependent to some degree upon the safety with which expeditions and exploring parties could be dispatched. The situation demanded for Englishmen that their country be at peace

with her powerful rival across the Channel, France. Now, if we will but add thirty years or so to the year of birth to get at the approximate beginning of the flourishing period, we will find that the period of decreased activity for English biology falls into the time of the wars between England and France which were terminated at Waterloo—a time when conditions would be most unfavorable for pursuing the work of collector in foreign lands, for it meant a possible raid upon some remote outpost settlement by an enemy privateer or the plundering of the ship, the seizing of the scientific cargo as a prize, and the subjection of the unfortunate man of science to the indignities of a prisoner of war.⁴

Turning now to a study of the separate distributions, we find that the profile drawn from the data on agriculturists shows a period of decreased activity of the same magnitude as exists for botanists, excepting that the decline begins a decade earlier. The profile drawn from the data on naturalists breaks after 1750–59 like the one for botanists, but the amount of the decline is much less. It is thus clear that each of these specialties, while dependent upon a certain common factor—the French Wars—also shows trends independent of one another. But of the three, the profiles drawn from the data on botanists and agriculturists show the greatest similarity. We have in this fact the confirmation of the origin of a classificatory difficulty which lurked in the *Dictionary* data on botanists from the outset: it was not always easy to distinguish the practical man from the man of science, or the horticulturist from the botanist. Indeed, there are quite a number of names which appear in the list of botanists as finally made up who could just as well have been classified as horticulturists. For example, John Lindley is grouped with the botanists, yet he was the author of a standard work on horticulture and for twenty-five years editor of the *Gardener's Chronicle*. By way of contrast, Thomas Andrew Knight (1759–1838), the vegetable physiologist, is classified as a horticulturist because of his connections with the Royal Horticultural Society.

What we have in these two distributions are two aspects of the same phenomenon, if we exclude animal husbandmen. Both botany and farming in England during the period here under consideration were dependent upon a like set of conditions, and, as is necessary where such dependence exists, both profiles show correspondingly similar changes.

The next task is to discover the set-up out of which both botany and agriculture emerged. But before doing so a summary statement of the scope of botanical inquiry during the period here under consideration, or up to around 1850, is necessary, even at the risk of repetition. Throughout this period botanists were almost wholly concerned with collection, identification, classification, and the related problem of geographical distribution.

⁴ See Edward Smith, *The Life of Sir Joseph Banks*, London, 1911, pp. 153–155 and 236–238.

Where the activity went beyond this it was almost wholly absorbed in the improvement of the classificatory schemes in use or in the invention of new ones. Plant physiology, anatomy, and histology were neglected subjects. This neglect was in part due to the crudeness of the microscope itself and the absence of a perfected technique for its use. The important reason, however, lay in the close attachment of British botany to practical pursuits and the rapid expansion of the over-seas empire which made taxonomic problems more urgent.

The fact that the classificatory system devised by Linnaeus, derisively described by Harvey-Gibson as a "sort of glorified city directory,"⁵ so completely provided for this need for giving names to the thousands of specimens which were being sent home each year, inclined British botanists to be satisfied with themselves and their work. The natural system, whatever merits it possesses in the work of constructing plant hierarchies, was of little use in the business of naming and is one of the reasons advanced by contemporaries for opposing it. As a result England became isolated from advances made by Continental scientists, notably the Germans.⁶ The Napoleonic Wars also assisted in prolonging this period of isolation, as did the influence of James Edward Smith (1759-1828), star pupil of Professor Hope and owner of the Linnean library and herbarium.

Taking our cue from these observations, the flourishing periods of British botany appear to originate immediately out of the rapid accumulation of exotic plants⁷ which began with the expansion of the British Empire in the 17th century to satisfy the needs of fashion for exotic gardening which appeared simultaneously. Ultimately, these periods are part of the general movement to meet the growing demand for food and fiber which arose from the rapid increase of population as it shifted from rural to urban or manufacturing centers. In such a relationship it became the task of botanists, along with private nurserymen and seed dealers, to search the four corners of the world for useful and ornamental exotics which could be grown in an English climate, name them, and give instructions for their cultivation. Likewise, when events and circumstances became such as to interfere with this activity, there would be a decline in the number of famous botanists who made their appearance.

During the period which concerns us here, to 1850, there did occur a time when the task of botanists was disturbed. Writers on the history of agriculture recognize three important periods beginning with 1760. The first

⁵ R. J. Harvey-Gibson, *Outlines of the History of Botany*, London, 1919, p. 55.

⁶ C. C. Babington's *Manual of the British Flora*, 1843, was the first book of its kind to bring to British botanists a knowledge of what was being done in Germany.

⁷ Philip Miller (1691-1771), in the eighth and last edition of *The Gardener's Dictionary* published by himself, tells us that the plants then cultivated in English gardens (1768) were more than double the number when the first folio edition appeared in 1731. Article on "Horticulture," *The Edinburgh Encyclopedia*, 1832, vol. 10, p. 534.

covers the reign of George III up to 1813, and, represented by the amount of new land brought into cultivation (enclosures), the improvements made in the growing of field crops, and the development of new breeds of livestock and varieties of plants by importation and selective breeding, stands as the golden age of English agriculture. It embraces the careers of Arthur Young (1741-1820), Sir John Sinclair (1754-1835), and the life of the Board of Agriculture. The second period, from around 1813 to 1837, or to the time of Victoria's coronation, is described variously by such terms as the "great depression," the "age of agricultural distress," and the like. During this age many of the improvements and advances made in the time of "Farmer George" were lost. The last period begins with the reign of Victoria and endures to around 1874. This era stands out as another age of agricultural advancement, and was fostered in no slight degree by the Royal Agricultural Society which was established in 1838.

If we will now return to the profile on the temporal distribution of agriculturists and add thirty years to arrive at the beginning of the flourishing period, it will be observed that the break occurs some time during the period 1813-1817. A study of the flourishing period of botanists shows a similar break at about the same time.

A demonstration of the nature just completed is always open to the criticism that the simultaneous occurrence of two events is not necessarily proof of dependence. This objection is not applicable in its entirety to the correlation which it has been the object here to set forth. It has been shown that there was a common factor involved—the French wars of the Napoleonic era—in bringing about a decline in the number of persons who achieved fame in each of the separate specialties classified under the heading of biology. What remained to be done was to show that the greater magnitude of the decline which botany revealed was due to its dependence upon agriculture. Evidence that such a dependence existed was presented. To complete the correlation, evidence must now be presented showing that there actually was a slowing up of botanical activity coincidental with the decline in the number of botanists who began to flourish after 1780-89.

To do this it is necessary to describe the state of the royal botanical establishment at Kew. The gardens at Kew were the hub around which all English botany turned, beginning with the reign of George III, and even earlier. The great universities, Oxford and Cambridge, did little to assist in the progress of botany during the period studied. There existed chairs for the teaching of botany at both institutions, but neither was regarded as more than a sinecure. Thomas Martyn, who succeeded his father as professor of botany at Cambridge in 1762, complained of the absence of student interest as early as 1776, and discontinued his lectures altogether by 1796. From this time forth to the appointment of John Stevens Henslow (1796-1861) as his successor in 1825 no teaching appears to have been done.

Oxford fared no better, in fact worse. John Sibthorp (1754-1796) succeeded to his father's post at the latter's resignation in 1784, but before he could revive the study of botany at Oxford he was cut off by an untimely death. His successor, Dr. George Williams, returned to the easy going ways of the elder Sibthorp, and botany at Oxford continued to languish until 1834. The Scottish universities were more fortunate in the matter of teachers, but even they exerted little influence upon the course of botany. It was not until the coming of the laboratory that the universities came to their own, although the teaching of botany at the University of London, both at University College and at King's, was from the first successful.

This history of the botanical establishment at Kew begins with the planting of the exotic garden by John Stuart, third Earl of Bute, who acted in the capacity of scientific advisor to Princess Augusta, mother of George III. With the death of the Princess in 1772 the properties at Kew were acquired by the King. It seems that Lord Bute was not a favorite of the monarch and so was replaced by Sir Joseph Banks, who continued in the position of scientific advisor until his death in 1820. During Banks's administration the gardens prospered, collectors were sent out to all parts of the world either at the expense of the gardens or in co-operation with the Admiralty or other government departments, and an elaborate correspondence was carried on with colonial officials and medical men exiled in the remote corners of the world to make certain that nothing of value to Kew would be passed up. To Banks must also go the credit for conceiving the plans which made Kew the botanical marvel of the nineteenth century under Hooker, for it was he who originated the idea of making Kew a depository for all exotics which could be grown in an English climate, an experimental station for the Empire, and a training school for horticulturists and botanists.

With the appointment of the Prince Regent in 1811 and the death of Banks in 1820 the establishment at Kew began to fall apart. The gardens were left without an experienced head or an enthusiastic patron. Neither George IV nor William IV, nor in fact any of the new corps of officials who had come into the government at the close of the Napoleonic Wars, was interested in gardening or Kew. The nominal head to follow Banks, Aylmer Bourke Lambert (1761-1842), a wealthy amateur and accomplished botanist, found it impossible to revive the declining affairs at the gardens. By 1839 they had fallen into such a state of dilapidation from neglect that the proposal was made in Parliament that the plants and shrubs be sold and the greenhouses and pits be converted into wineries.⁸ Hunter House which had been purchased at Banks's instigation to shelter the library and herbarium at Kew in 1818 was turned over as a residence to the King of Hanover, who occupied it until his death in 1851.⁹

⁸ Green, *op. cit.*, p. 356.

⁹ Green, *op. cit.*, p. 269.

At the time steps were being taken in Parliament to abolish Kew, interest in botany and agriculture had sufficiently returned to force an abandonment of the proposal. It was finally agreed that the gardens should be made over to the nation and supported out of the public treasury instead of being left, as heretofore, dependent upon royal patronage. With this reorganization effected, William Jackson Hooker was installed as director in 1841 and the second age of progress at Kew began. It was thus not until the Victorian revival that the affairs at Kew, along with British agriculture, began to show an improvement.¹⁰

By way of conclusion, it may now be observed that the pattern of achievement in British botany is similar to that for the British army. In both instances it was discovered that it is the cultural situation which produces famous men, and not breed. It may be argued that this is merely a fortunate coincidence, and that had some other activity been considered the outcome would have been quite different. For example, if mathematics had been chosen for study instead of botany it might have been discovered that the cultural situation had nothing to do with the achievement of fame in this field. Perhaps, but from what the writer knows of the history of mathematics he feels confident that a thorough study of the biographies of British mathematicians found in the *Dictionary* would disclose the same results as were obtained for British botanists. The fact that the birth dates of all kinds of great men group themselves into galaxies is for the present ample proof of the correctness of this belief.¹¹

¹⁰ The decline in the number of botanists who began to flourish after about 1850 cannot be dealt with here, since the *Dictionary* includes only a complete list of deceased persons up to 1911. That the period of revived activity following the Napoleonic wars was also succeeded by a decline appears certain from the distribution of birth dates obtained from Britten and Bougler's *Index*. It appears probable that the rise of the laboratory and the transfer of botanical activity to the universities and the collapse of agriculture around 1870 were responsible for the decline. But until more complete data are available for this period nothing definite can be said.

¹¹ The birth dates of British mathematicians fall into two major galaxies: 1590-1639 and 1799-1829. Two lesser groupings occur in 1680-1699 and 1739-59.

PERSONALITY TRAITS AND THE SITUATION

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THE THESIS on which this paper is written is that human behavior in any situation must be defined not only in relation to what the individual is trying to do at the moment but, more significantly, in the light of how the individual feels that some purpose or value of his own is being affected. It is also maintained that the behavior itself does not necessarily reveal either of these factors. In other words, we can not tell from the way an individual behaves in a particular situation what he is trying to do or what he thinks about it. The reliability of predictions as to future behavior, therefore, when based solely upon a personality classification derived from individual reactions in a clearly defined type of situation depends not upon the constancy of individual purpose alone, as some investigators seem to have assumed, but also upon the continuance or recurrence of the same type of situation.

From this point of view, attempts to explain and predict behavior on the basis of certain trait descriptions of personality, as for example, honest, ascendant, intelligent, introvert, etc. that are assumed to be constant and to show certain fairly consistent relations to each other, are likely to be very inadequate.

This point can be illustrated from experimentation and observation. G. W. Allport found in a study of the correspondence of traits a rather decided contradiction between the writing and drawing movements of one of his subjects. He wrote with random and excessive movements, while his drawing movements were placid and concentrated. The explanation is found in a difference of interest; in the fact that he was uninterested in writing but had a keen interest in drawing. Now, there is nothing unusual about this except the fact that an interest in drawing and in writing did not converge, i.e., the individual, contrary to expectation, did not find in writing an expression of his artistic interests.

I submit that no one could have told that this individual was uninterested in writing simply by observing his drawing performance, nor could we have guessed from his writing movements that he liked drawing. But some one objects: this is an exceptional case; in most cases there is a correspondence. My answer is that the exception and the way by which it is explained illustrate that potentiality follows the lines of individual interest.

Suppose we try to rate two persons A and B with reference to a particular quality, say the disposition to pay attention, or the quality of concentration. By a series of formal tests we find that B ranks higher than A in attention. This result correlates with the reports of their employer. A is described

as a sort of dreamy inattentive individual and this trait corresponds to certain other traits according to expectation. He fails to follow simple instructions, and is rarely entrusted with more than routine duties. In the world of business and finance A is doomed—his fate is sealed and the key is lost. Note, however, that almost every evening finds him at his music. Hour after hour he practices to improve his skill on the violin; to learn a new composition. He rarely permits his attention to be diverted. B spends an evening at the show but A, the boy who cannot concentrate, plays the violin. It may be that A acquired an interest in music as a compensation for his failure in business. This, however, does not alter the fact that what gave A a low rating is not a deficiency of some quality in the abstract, but rather a personality organization which is not served by concentration in certain types of situations.

The goal toward which the individual is oriented need not lie within the field of operations in order to give buoyancy to the activity. It is necessary, however, that the individual feel that what he is doing is bringing him toward fulfillment. This is shown in studies of occupational groups, by Hersy, Bakke, Uhrbrock, Kornhauser and many others. An individual may concentrate upon a task that is very distasteful in itself because he feels that the wage will take him through medical school; or that his diligence and honesty may catch the eye of the boss and gain a promotion; or to see a son through college. Again the goal may be immediate and pressing: the simple desire to live respectably from day to day among one's fellows.

The personality has significance, not in terms of the correspondence of so-called traits, but in terms of individual purpose. If there is a correspondence of certain traits it is because the individual's struggles toward personal fulfillment have produced it. Lack of correspondence appears for exactly the same reason. There is no need to explain away one type of phenomena in order to defend another. The tendency, therefore, to stock the individual with specific qualities and to talk about them as if they possessed some psychic power to determine behavior gets us nowhere in the attempt to understand the fundamental nature of personality. To illustrate let us take the case of a high school student familiar to me. We may call him Reuben. Now every observational test showed that Reuben possessed certain highly approved qualities. He was loyal, honest, somewhat extroverted, ambitious, sociable, and apparently well adjusted. He played baseball, engaged in debate, was on the track team, worked his way through school, was graduated with honors and went into business with his father in a small department store. Reuben was as popular outside as in school. He was, until the United States entered the war, on the side of the Allies, but Reuben refused to sign up. Almost over night Reuben found himself in a new and strange environment. His playmates were hurrying off to the colors, their parents held him in contempt; their sisters who had

played for Reuben's eye passed him in scorn. The neighbors said "Why should my boy go fight to save Reuben's skin, while he lies around like a skunk and eats the fat of the land?" They called him a coward; they drew a ring of prejudice around his father's store and closed him up; and Reuben went to jail. Whatever we may think of the judgments of Reuben's neighbors, no one, I am sure, will doubt that they had a profound effect upon his judgments of them, upon his own evaluation of himself, and perhaps upon his whole philosophy of life. What I wish to suggest is that this new role which Reuben entered and the transformation of character that grew out of it could not possibly have been revealed by a simple trait analysis of character on the day he made his high school graduation speech. Such an analysis could hardly have revealed that unique potential in Reuben's make-up, which in a wholly different situation transformed his behavior.

Trait analysis whether based upon how the subject thinks he would react to an imaginary situation or upon observation of his operations in a particular situation suffers the limitations imposed by the nature of the traits and their relation to individual purpose itself. Purpose always lies behind the scene of action. It may be reflected in a particular act but we cannot be sure this is the case. In order to know how important an act is to the individual it is necessary to know how important to the individual is the purpose which dominates the act; whether he is working for an immediate or distant goal; the extent to which he feels that attainment is essential to his system of personal values. We would be unlikely to tell by watching a man chop wood whether he is intent upon building a fire to drive away ghosts; keep himself warm; or build a house, and if to build a house whether to provide an altar for the gods or to sell it to a neighbor for a profit. But whether or not a thwarting of the wood-chopping operation causes a violent disturbance of the personality depends upon which of these purposes dominates the behavior and how the purpose fits into his life organization. The fact that two men volunteer at the first call to arms, parade side by side down main avenue in cocked hat and straps, tells nothing of their nature or loyalties, their love of country, of their fellow men, their concepts of freedom, or justice, their evaluations of the self; whether they are motivated by immediate or distant goals. Nevertheless, these values that lie behind the scene of action will determine the effects of a changing war situation on the personality.

I have known white men who would saw wood with a Negro; help him feed a threshing machine; sit with him on the spring seat of a wagon and take turns at driving the team; who would even ride with him in the same taxicab, but would not ride with him in the cabin of a railroad engine nor in the same coach of a railroad train, nor in the same streetcar unless separated by a sign reading "This side for whites." A white man may keep a Negro in his own house even as a guest, but will not sleep in a hotel if he

knows that a Negro's name is on the register. Now, may I ask, what justifiable conclusions could be drawn or what predictions could be made as to the fundamental attitudes of a white man toward a Negro from an observation of any one of these situations. Yet some of the most profound disturbances to the whole personality have been produced by some strange or unique occurrence in the established relations of white and colored people in certain areas of the United States. The fear that a Negro may overstep his bounds is probably one of the most telling and devastating fears which some people have ever felt.

Many, more or less, unique *trait* characterizations of individuals, classes, races, nationalities and occupational groups are based upon surface observations evaluated in terms of some stock standard without reference to the deeper meanings that lie behind the scenes of action. Thus workers strike for higher wages, they resist the introduction of labor dispensing machinery, they are reluctant to give extra effort to the task. They were described by a former student of mine whose father was a coal operator as "a mass of cantankerous contradictions." But we observe that the operators struck by closing the mines; they resisted the introduction of government regulation and they were reluctant to give extra wages. Thus another student describes them as a "mass of congealed absurdities." The behavior in either case appears consistent when interpreted in the light of what the individual wants to do.

Hersey found among industrial workers the characteristics of individualism, feelings of superiority, retaliatory dispositions, rancorous attitudes, acts of cowardice, devotion to the *status quo*. He also found that these same workers were courageous, industrious, co-operative, kindly, loyal and ready to upset the *status quo*. These contradictory traits appear quite consistent with individual purpose. It is a matter of how the individual feels that the particular situation is affecting his concept of life's fulfillment. The concept may be on a low level. The cosmetician, the slapstick comedienne, the public dance hall, the rayon counter, the screen and the basement beer parlor, in many cases provide appropriate stimuli and hold the individual to an otherwise distasteful task. Even so the behavior must be defined in relation to this system of values for the individual. When they are threatened the personal equilibrium is disturbed and the qualities revealed in the effort to restore that equilibrium often leave trait definitions of personality empty and cold. Honesty, ascendancy, loyalty, extroversion, etc., disappear and we see the manifestations of deceit, treachery, and cowardice; we observe an individual who is subservient and pleading. Oftentimes the strivings of the individual to restore some durable equilibrium under the prevailing conditions seems to generate new forms of tension which, if prolonged, may culminate in criminal seizures, suicide, insanity, murder, etc. A skilled workman whose case I studied broke under the pressure of pro-

longed unemployment. After two years of failure to regain his lost status he became disassociated with the world of reality, imagined himself to be a king and those about him to be his subjects. All efforts to reconnect him with the world of objective reality failed. He would simply say: "Must a king bow before his subjects?" The point is that frustrations and their total personality effects must be interpreted in the light of a disturbance of activities through which the individual has experienced a sense of fulfillment and security. Such activities seem universally significant.

Bakke shows clearly how the fundamental values for which ordinary men live and strive in modern society are interrelated with job and wage security. So true is this that *fear* of losing the job engulfs the whole personality and gives rise to a sense of impending personal tragedy. This fear of losing the job determines attitudes toward youth, old age, women, machines, foreigners, employers, and any other factors that may be in any way associated with approaching or actual insecurity. The following from one of Bakke's cases who had gone several weeks without employment:

"I wouldn't say this very loud, but I'm telling you that I'm beginning to hate England . . . I feel that when I walk down the streets here that all my old mates are looking at me and saying, 'wonder what's wrong with A.' . . . Even my family is beginning to think I'm not trying. So I can't talk much with them any more . . . some nights we never say a word. Then I lay and try to plan like I used to when one job came to an end. But somehow the plans don't come like they used to."

It is at this psychological point in individual experience, the point where plans no longer come, where the individual finds his inner resources exhausted and all hope of their recovery gone that the personality, as defined in relation to familiar standards of worth, collapses. A number of case histories of unemployed persons who have been under my own observation for three years now, define this course quite clearly. One man who had the reputation of having been a good husband and father and who had a record of steady employment in a skilled trade, was found two years after the loss of his job and the final breakup of his family, living alone in destitution in a tar paper covered shack on the edge of town. No assurances from the agencies of the community could enlist his co-operation in the effort to restore him to respectability. He said: "I am all washed up and I don't care." We cannot say that he had recovered equilibrium through mental and moral deterioration. He was certainly not a happy man; but the risks involved in the effort to re-enter the communal life seemed almost terrifying. He compared his former anxieties and fears to those of a man trying to follow a narrow pathway with a high wall of jagged rocks on one side and a deep ravine on the other—a pathway leading nowhere and on which one could not turn around. When asked where he got that idea, he said it came to him in a dream. "But," said he, "the ravine had a bottom, I've found it." Indeed, that seemed to be his only satisfaction: the fact

that the struggle was over and he could sink no lower. What he would have done if charity had cut him off I cannot say.

Sometimes rather prolonged inner-strains that alter the personality are produced by a conflict between one's own ideals or personal goals and the open demands of the community or an employer. This has been shown by the studies of Waller, Plant and others of the experiences of public school teachers.

It seems likely that people who elect to enter the teaching field are somewhat more altruistically conditioned from early experiences than the average.¹ At any rate teacher training courses emphasize the altruistic character of the profession. Enthusiasm is enriched and the ego expanded during the early practice teaching experience through consciousness of authority and achievement. As time passes, however, counter-acting experiences occur. The teacher tends to be isolated from much of the normal life about her by codes and community attitudes. She is frequently treated as if an object of charity through her own negligence. Nevertheless she is expected to be a model for the children both in and out of the school room. She learns that far from occupying a position of authority her life is regulated in and out of working hours, by authorities whose judgment she often cannot respect. Any demonstration of creative thinking is likely to endanger her position.

Salary increases are fought over in board meetings and frequently hinge on some minor incident reported by a disgruntled child. She is sometimes humiliated in the presence of pupils by an autocratic or neurotic supervisor. The teacher is often subjected to regulations that have little relation to her wishes or in some cases to the common practices of other people in the community. Members of the school board may play cards, but the teacher must not play cards; dancing is approved for others, but the teacher must not dance; anyone else may go fishing on Sunday or sell sandwiches; the teacher must attend Sunday school and church and in many cases must teach a Sunday school class. Others may spend as they please, the teacher must contribute liberally to the church—in some instances to all the churches, to avoid charges of favoritism even though she may heartily believe in none. No matter how ardently religious the teacher may be, if it is the wrong religion she must wear a false front; before expressing an opinion on an economic or political issue she must know the views of the influential people in the town. Since these views frequently differ it is better not to have an opinion at all. The teacher must outwardly support every local project, even though to do so may strain her own sense of honor and shame her intelligence. She must trade at every store; must buy a table runner at the "missionary alliance" bazaar; ice cream at the "Pro-

¹ Some of the materials here presented will appear in a forthcoming book on *Social Psychology* to be published by Lippincott Company.

gressive Club's" social, magazines from the "Junior Buffaloes," and soap from the "Girls' Reserves."

Thus the conflict between inner cravings and outer demands often forces the teacher to wear a *masque* or lose her job. In the course of time the individual tends to become in reality like the *masque* she wears, or if not, to find escape from the prolonged strain in some more or less abnormal compensatory devices, substitutions, rationalizations, etc., and in the development of excessive introvertive or extrovertive tendencies.

Some years ago Dr. Plant reported a study of introvertive traits in women teachers with twenty years experience and those who had been teaching only two years. Those who had been in the profession twenty years showed a marked increase in introversion as compared to teachers with only two years of experience. It may be insisted that teaching does not make the introverts but simply holds them. There may be some truth in this but we have seen that the conditions under which teachers—women particularly—work are obviously such as to produce introverts and other maladjusted types. We might expect that such conditions would also tend to keep the introvert and to increase rather than decrease the degree of introversion.

Training for an occupation gives the individual a system of skills and techniques by which he hopes to realize certain life purposes. In some callings where the art of masquing is fundamental to success, it comprises a part of the training program.

The *masque* is justified only in terms of the success it brings and the individual may be relieved of serious inner-tensions so long as he is successful, that is, unless the forced adjustment conflicts violently with previously conditioned values. But when the struggle fails to bring success then it is that disturbing tendencies are likely to be hastened, because apparently in many such instances the individual has no solid personality reserves to fall back upon. Confirmation of this statement is not absolutely established, but it is strongly supported by evidences from a number of sources including psychiatric reports, studies of the experiential backgrounds of stranded personalities in health resorts, private and public hospitals for the treatment of neurotic types and in the personal accounts of individuals working under great strain and without marked success.

What I wish to emphasize in conclusion is that the behavior is always under the dominance of the individual's nature: his mental and temperamental make-up, the character of the will, the orientation of the personality into which enter the factors of early training, education, in short, the totality of impressive and shaping experiences. In other words, the conscious associations appear subservient in major situations, at least, to the deeper *settings of will and purpose* from which they derive meaning and direction for the individual. The extent to which a situation produces

frustration and alters the personality depends upon how completely those interests around which the personality is centered are disturbed. In such situations the central nervous system seeks an equilibrium through some form of escape from the tension. The escape mechanisms thus devised tend in the course of time to dominate the whole organism and to give the total behavior a new direction. An illustration is the case of an individual driven by economic disaster and with it the conscious crash of self-respect to some form of *rationalization* or to some excuse, which may serve to cushion the blow to his sense of pride. The first attempt to escape may be no more than a temporary mental makeshift, as for instance the exaggeration of a physical defect or ailment or an effort to relate the failure to the poor judgment of a trustee. But if the necessity of rationalizing continues, it tends to become a habit that deepens with time and finally affects the whole course of behavior. The individual may become a confirmed hypochondriac; he may acquire the manifest symptoms of hysteria, somnambulism, hallucinations, anesthetics, paralyses and so forth. So-called "compulsive habits," as in the case of drug addicts and alcoholics, often begin as a means of temporary escape from inner tensions associated with blockings of the will or the destruction of fundamental *goals*. Repeated experiences, however, create "new vital needs" until the organism becomes dominated by the "habit." When this happens original *settings* of the *will* appear to be absorbed by the cravings for the drug or the drink.

Similarly, tense and unfamiliar situations, where purpose fulfillment is thwarted, may produce experiences that finally lead to lasting obsessions and perversions. In such situations the craving for some durable equilibrium may result in a complete shift of allegiance, as when one turns to religious fanaticism; or in the release of a pleasurable impulse which is normally held in check by the more absorbing interests in *purpose fulfillment*. Such temporary pleasurable experience repeated under the prolonged pressure of a *thwarted will* may eventually engulf the whole personality, and like the drug "habit" it seems to generate what Kurt Levin calls its own *psychic energies*. There can be little doubt that some cases of sex perversion have developed in this way.

Let me close with the case of a young man who was brought to my attention five years ago in a juvenile court. He was then sixteen years of age and had already acquired the reputation of being the most spectacular firebug known to the local public. He had confessed starting three disastrous fires and was suspected in the case of several smaller ones. In the course of the next five years, he served two probation periods, was repeatedly placed in detention homes, was sent to the state industrial school, finally left the state and my last word of him was a report that he had been convicted in a distant state of burning down a church in the town where he was employed. Everywhere he went he left a trail of flame and ashes. It

did not seem to make much difference what he burned just so it represented value and made a big fire. The psychiatrist who examined the boy at seventeen reported him as normal up to the time of his first fire, which occurred by accident. He was the son of foreign-born parents who worked hard, lived meagerly and exercised a rather rigid discipline in the home. There was apparently no legitimate provision for the boy's natural craving for expression and recognition. But his first fire which, as I say, was accidentally started, took him by storm. It brought the fire trucks, the crowds; it was headlined in the newspapers. His name was read in every household. The more fires he started the more the crowds came and the more he was headlined. Even in the court room, he seemed to have a sense of grandeur, as if the eyes of everyone were on him, as if everyone were talking about him. Fires brought him what nothing else could bring. They brought it when everything else had failed.

The above discussion suggests certain definite limitations in attempts to define the personality in terms of specific *traits*. It has been noted that the limitations inhere in the fundamental nature of the traits themselves, which from our point of view are manifestations of some deeply rooted value or system of values as affected by the situation at hand. There is no intention to imply that *trait* concepts of personality have no value. Such concepts have great usefulness for descriptive purposes. For example, in order to make a personality study of individuals as related to occupational interests and influences it is necessary to have a description of the way they react in and out of the occupational situation; of the degree of consistency and persistence of certain so-called *traits*. The danger, however, is in the tendency to conclude that the *trait* description gives a picture of the whole personality. In other words it is not enough to say that A is an introvert; that B lacks the power of attention; that C is unstable; or even that D lacks social interest. What we really want to know is how these particular *traits* came into view. We may not be able to answer this question, but the attempt to do so is a study of personality.

AN EXAMINATION OF CRITERIA FOR THE DETERMINATION OF NORMAL SOCIETY

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DURING the depression, when my students have spoken of current social conditions as if they were representative of society, I found myself admonishing them that we must think of society as it was before 1930 in order to correctly picture "normal" society. Depression conditions, I explained, were highly abnormal conditions and our society then, therefore, was decidedly "abnormal." At last, however, after years of depression I began to doubt the truth of my admonition. Finally this led me to inquire regarding the dividing line between normal and abnormal society and concerning the criteria by which it may be determined. This paper reports the results of my inquiry.

In thinking about the situation and seeking a criterion to distinguish normal from abnormal society, it occurred to me that the science of statistics would be the most likely field for the discovery of criteria or devices by which they might be detected. Consequently I gave attention to the various averages, namely, the mean, median and mode, to the trend, to budgetaries, and to the various methods of measuring deviations from central values among sets and series of variables, such as the interquartile range and standard deviation. What I shall say in the first part of this paper concerns these statistical devices.

First, regarding the usefulness of averages as criteria of the normal and abnormal in society. I shall deal chiefly with the mean as a representative average because the median and mode are ordinarily very similar to it as determiners of value. The mean is widely used as a criterion of the normal. When our national Weather Bureau wants to advise us about normal weather it makes use of the mean. Normal precipitation for a locality or region is the mean annual, seasonal, monthly or daily precipitation. It would similarly present mean temperature and moisture as normal temperature and moisture. This same use of the mean is generally found among social scientists. A normal yield is the mean yield for a series of years. A normal business year is an average year.

But when we get down to fundamentals we discover that the mean really tells us little about the reality. The mean only represents the central value of a set or series of variables and it possesses practically no reality content of its own. In fact, in a large series of variables it may be that not a single variable coincides with the mean. What does the mean temperature tell us about the temperature reality of a region? Only that temperature variables of the specified period fluctuate about this central point. Now as a matter

of fact we may and do have perfectly "normal" temperature, according to our "old timers" and other weather sharks and also according to common sense when the temperature has a fairly wide range above and below the mean. In the daily lives of the people the term mean has no place, and yet they talk intelligently about variations of weather, as to whether they are usual or not. The popular judgment knows about what weather to expect at a given season. A few degrees variation does not constitute unusual or abnormal weather in its findings. But this is popular; it is more or less vague memory of other years and times; it is not a scientific criterion. But the weather man should have a better determiner of what constitutes normal weather than the mean, just because the range of reality that may properly be called usual is not at all expressed in the mean. How can a norm that is without reality content adequately inform us concerning the normality of a whole big range of reality phenomena?

Again, the mean as a criterion of normality is defective when it is viewed in a developmental series. Its weakness here can be illustrated by considering the annual crude death rates of the registration area of the United States from 1900 to 1933. The crude death rate fell rather gradually from 17.6 in 1900 to 10.7 in 1933, a decline of 39 percent, a veritable revolution in the public health field. The mean rate for the 33 years was 14.14. When we inquire what that mean rate of 14 signifies, we find it is almost empty of meaning. Not only does it not coincide with any annual rate but in an evolutionary series of rates it expresses practically nothing, since a central value is of no significance unless as a means of comparing the mean rate of some group with that of some other group for the same period. It can give no clue to a normal rate. In fact in a dynamic, evolving society where the order of the age is for mortality rates to decline we can find no toe hold in trying to conceive what a normal death rate would be or what normal public health is in terms of death rates. I take it that what is true of the mean death rate as a criterion of public health would be true of any other time series of social variables in a changing, evolving society.

I have been looking at charts on business trends to discover what "normal" business conditions are. One is "A Century of Business Progress," covering the period, 1831 to 1932, built on an index basis, with a horizontal line, the mean of the years 1910-14, representing 100. Areas in black represent the fluctuations of volume of business above and below the average line of 100. The black areas above the horizontal line are labeled "prosperity" and those below "depression." As to time distribution, the black above just about equals that below. Prosperity and depressions seem to be about fifty-fifty. As to volume, the black areas above and below the 100 line also appear to be about equal. Depression seems as usual as prosperity, and therefore as "normal." But as an average, the horizontal line, the line of average, seldom coincides with the volume of business. Business men

think and talk of prosperity as "normal" business; but when they do so it is probably a case of the wish being father to the thought. Now, note the situation since 1918 as depicted by this chart. Since 1918, the black below the line (depression) has more than doubled that above the line (prosperity) in volume, the most of it taking place since 1929. Even in the ten years before 1930, the decade of great prosperity, including "Coolidge Prosperity," the prosperity seems not to have reached the masses. I have analyzed this period and have found that it was one of "urban prosperity" and "rural depression." During that time the purchasing power of the farmer's dollar went down almost steadily. Also the index number of wages of industrial workers did not rise but ran on the horizontal. While the prosperity was urban, it was concentrated in a relatively small class.

A Babson chart covering the years 1908-1936, representing a synthetic mean of many lines of business activities, offers little more encouragement. In this chart, also, the dark areas above the ascending line of the mean which represents "over-expansion" in business appear to equal those in red below the line representing "readjustment," both in time allotment and volume. Again it is an affair of about fifty-fifty. So I turn from these charts with the feeling that averages have given no clue to what is normal business, normal economic conditions, normal economic society.

Second, as criteria of normality in society, measures of deviation from some central value are in a position of advantage as compared with averages. Mean deviation, standard deviation and the interquartile range are all measures of variability of phenomena about and away from some norm. As such they have a range of reality content that is of consequence. In a group of 10,000 workers whose hourly wages range from 56 to 69 cents about a mean wage of 62.5 cents, the mean deviation is 1.83 cents and the standard deviation is 2.9 cents. The mean deviation in the series of death rates from 1900 to 1933 recently alluded to is 1.84 about the mean death rate of 14.14. When stated in other terms these are seen to be large proportions of the phenomena and they do represent intimately bodies of reality. Thus 28 percent of the 10,000 workers are within the range of the mean deviation and 44 percent of them are within that of the standard deviation.

Notwithstanding this large reality content of these and other measures of deviation, there is nothing in them that seems to make them available as criteria of normal social conditions. In terms of wage, the wages of 28 percent of the 10,000 workers covered by the mean deviation lie between 60.7 and 64.3 cents an hour while those of the 44 percent covered by the standard deviation range between 50.6 to 65.4 cents an hour. But, in either case, do the wages lying between those limits, the wages of 28 or 44 percent of the workers constitute normal wages, while the wages of the 72 and 56 percent of workers represent abnormal wages? On what grounds have we

the right to say that? We might agree that they should represent the normal, but that would be more or less a subjective projection, an interpretation of what we want conditions to mean and which does not necessarily inhere in the conditions themselves.

Regarding all these measures of deviation we seem to get to this: Whether they shall serve as criteria of normal and abnormal society, as boundaries between the normal and abnormal, depends on interpretation, setting up judgments largely of subjective import. It is a matter of good sense whether any of them at all shall act as a delimiting boundary line. And whether the boundary of the normal shall be the mean deviation, the standard deviation, the interquartile range or something else is purely a concern of interpretative judgment.

The relationship between social trends and social normality and abnormality should receive consideration. Certainly the trend is one of the most useful and revealing of the various statistical devices and one might expect it could be made to speak of the presence of normal society. Careful consideration, however, dissipates existing grounds of expectancy. First, trends are not essential to the existence of society. Whenever and so long as society is static, it manifests no trends. Of the millions of years of its existence, it is probable that society has been static most of the time. All advanced nations, however, do seem to manifest trends wherever there are statistical series covering considerable periods of time, such as tendencies toward urbanization, divorce, falling birth rate, stationary population, literacy, industrialization, business cycles, automotivation, highway systems, illegitimacy, birth control, militarization, emancipation of slaves, enfranchisement of voters and so forth. Second, but in and of itself a trend is only a quantitative expression of some specified kind of social variable. The trend manifest in a series of falling birth rates is only a record or representation of that fact. It is not a qualitative, evaluational thing. There is no upward or downward, injurious or beneficial, good or bad in trends themselves. Such qualitative interpretations are injected by our minds into them, and hence are not criteria of normality or abnormality, unless, by agreement, we make them such. Different attitude groups regard the same trend in diametrically opposite ways. To one, increasing divorce spells emancipation, to another destruction of a sacred institution. We have proponents of bigger and better armaments and pacifically inclined objectors. Mrs. Sanger wants fewer and better births, while dictator Hitler subsidizes more, if not better, births.

There are other statistical devices which are most useful to accomplish certain purposes, such as budgetary expressions of standards of living and appraisal forms of city health work. A budgetary estimate in itself is not a criterion of normal society but of what standard of living or income it is thought a given group has or should have. It may depict what standard of

living a society or group should have in order to be what is considered by someone to be "normal." An appraisal form for city health work is a device for collecting data about health in various cities, weighting the items so they may be evaluated and expressed on a scale of 100, for guides in health work and for comparison of health work in the different cities. But it does not tell what is normal and abnormal health. It does enable the investigators to make up their minds as to the competency or inadequacy of health systems and situations by drawing on their scientific and practical information about health conditions and standards.

It looks like this point has been reached: The use of the term normal for any segment of the social reality can only be justified because either (a) the reality is inherently different from other social reality, or (b) it is related to other reality in a unique way, or (c) it occurs more frequently than other social reality.

The first meaning, that the normal is inherently different from other reality, does not comport with the ordinary meaning of normal. "Normal weather" is not different in kind from abnormal weather. It is made of the same sort of units of temperature, moisture, wind movement. The "normal" temperature of the human body is 98.6, but the heat units entering into it are of the same variety as those of the body when the temperature rises above or falls below the norm. If and when we have "normal business" conditions, inherently they appear like other business conditions. As we saw, more business volume spells "prosperity," while less volume is "depression." Only in so-called "pathological" social conditions and in so-called "social degeneration" might there seem to be social situations of a different nature than the normal or non-pathological. These require later examination.

Second, do abnormal social conditions resemble normal social conditions and differ from them only in frequency? The answer hinges on the meaning of normal. If abnormal weather consists of variations from the mean, then it is more frequent than normal weather, because the latter as a mean seldom exists as a reality. But if normal weather consists of a broad band of fluctuations each side of the mean, then it may be of greater frequency than abnormal weather because it may contain a greater number of fluctuations. The case of normal and abnormal society should be similar. If normal society is a mean, it is very infrequent. If it is a standard deviation or an interquartile, it is comparatively frequent, in the latter case equaling in frequency abnormal society.

Third, normal society conceivably might be social phenomena related in a certain objective manner, abnormal society being any departure from that. A normal human body is one whose cells, tissues, skeleton, and other organs are articulated according to a given pattern and which, of course, has a full quota of such organs. Any permanent departure from that is

referred to as an abnormality. Giantism, dwarfism, elephantiasis, monsterism are such departures. Every illness is abnormal in the sense that it is undesirable, an inconvenience, and a menace (value judgments), but normal in the sense that its occurrence is a part of the order of nature.

Speaking sociologically, in the state of marriage, coitus occurs according to the expected social pattern and is normal, while in prostitution, promiscuity, adultery, common-law marriage it is regarded as socially abnormal. But coitus is of the same nature wherever performed, not a different sort of organic relationship. It is the value judgment, our attitudes, sentiments, sanctions which here differentiate between the normal and the abnormal. So criminal conditions are not different sets of social action, or actions articulated in ways different from usual life. They are merely ordinary activities conducted in ways which social approval condemns. Manslaughter and murder are the same kind of physical actions as those performed in self-defense, or by the police, or by our most approved patriots in time of war. Stealing a hog is carting off a swine after the same fashion used in hauling him to market legitimately. Robbing a bank, simplest way, is taking money over the counter just as we would ordinarily if it belonged to us. Criminal actions are ordinary actions carried on under circumstances our society does not sanction. Without our social judgments, our moral codes, there would exist no such classes as normal and abnormal. Coitus would always be natural and regular and taking life and property would not be frowned upon. Murder, thievery, adultery are superorganic, ab-extra relationships imposed by observers and are not inherent in the organic activities themselves.

The above discussion has implied that the word "normal" signifies the usual, regular, anticipated, and that departures therefrom constitute the abnormal. But if we disregard value judgments, it is largely a case of more or less of the same sort of objective social conditions. More business of the same kind makes prosperity, less and less of that spells depression. However, when the operation of value judgments is assumed, it becomes a case of the same things done in or out of place according to the codes embedded in the mores. The value judgments embedded in the mores are objective in the sense of being there as prescribed social patterns but not in the sense of being differentiated organic, biochemical responses. Accordingly, exactly the same kinds of social activities are here adjudged of one social import and there of another, today of this significance, a century ago of another, by one cult of this value, and by that of one exactly antithetical. For small social groups, the normal for each group is what the group demands and thinks should obtain. So the "normal" differs from group to group, and within the same great society we find contradictory normals. In the great society, a synthetic resultant of all these "normals," what can the normal possibly be construed to be at any time?

This discussion might be criticized as incomplete were some reference to so-called pathological society omitted. Various terms have been associated with social pathology, not always with penetrating wisdom, such as degeneration, paranoid, schizoid, disorganization, maladjustment. The presence of social conditions suitable to each of those terms would likely be thought of as abnormal. Do criteria exist which are capable of setting such social phenomena apart by themselves as well-marked, definite objectivities which can scientifically be labeled abnormal? Or is it a matter of more or less of the same kind of activities which constantly go on? I am inclined to think that when the three specifications just discussed are applied to them, they will be found to be very similar to the stuff society is made of all of the time. "Social disorganization," for example, seems to imply that disorganization is in some way abnormal and that it exists as a well-defined objective fact. But what is the criterion that delimits "organization" and therefore "disorganization"? When does organization pass into disorganization? Is all divorce family disorganization or only divorce up to a point? Then in an evolutionary, dynamic society, how is one to tell whether disorganization is of a necessary developmental kind or not? If it is the penalty of development, is it disorganization at all but only necessary waste due to reorganization? Can it be detected by any of our statistical devices? At what point in a falling birth rate or death rate series does disorganization set in or disappear?

We also would inquire whether presumptive abnormalities can be detected by any of the averages, measures of deviation, or trends which were previously considered. We were unable to justify their use as criteria of the abnormal in our previous discussion and there appears to be nothing in these cases which introduces new and significant features. We are tempted to think that they are the products of somebody's value judgments rather than existing as inherent objective traits of social reality.

My final conclusion is that what are called normal and abnormal society are in reality identically similar societal activities and that their only distinction inheres in differing sets of value judgments which are embedded in the mores. In other words, normal society and abnormal society are only symbols we have invented to satisfy our individualistic and group wishful thinking.

REACTIONS TO PREDICTIVE ASSUMPTIONS

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Definition. By the phrase "predictive assumption" are gathered together any and all expressions of attitude and opinion which have a predictive character, or represent a readiness to act on the assumption of some probability.

There is a blending or linkage between various "kinds" of predictive assumptions, which makes almost interchangeable the terms used to describe them. Predictive assumptions include expectant attitudes, gestures (significant incipient acts), prejudices, curses, hypotheses, prognoses, reputations, stereotypes, epithets, "conceptions of role," definitions of the situation, myths. Let us suggest further the common denominators of these states of mind.

Analysis. It would seem that one of the earliest, because inevitable, effects of those modes of mentation which we call imagination, objectification, self-consciousness, foresight, etc., must have been to produce in human beings reactions to their own (or others' communicated) definitions of situations. Men responded to their own ideas or images of the projected future.

These reactions would, of course, take the form of positive (accelerative) or negative (avoidance) responses—both attitudes and overt behaviors—according as the prospect predicted seemed desirable or undesirable; and the processes of evaluation and reaction toward their own (or others') expectations or curses would be a factor in the fulfillment or nonfulfillment thereof.

For present purposes, it was realized that the significant points for distinctions and classifications are whether the predictive assumption is (1) in opposition to, or (2) in accordance with, the wishes of those who are to do the responding.

An epithet always has its opposite. A reputation for doing something can always be rephrased as avoidance of something else. A prediction can be couched in negative or positive terms. The actual responses and results may similarly be described negatively or positively,¹ depending upon the emphasis in one's attention at the time. In either case behavior has occurred. Negative and positive are verbalized relativities. On the bio-physical level (the unconscious) there is no negative or positive.²

¹ Cf. Kenneth Burke, *Permanence and Change*; Wilfred Lay, *The Child's Unconscious Mind*; also those physiologists who treat "inhibition" as equally positive with impulse, both being considered as vectors unless they interact in a third dimension.

² Cf. Wilfred Lay, *loc. cit.*

The really significant negatives and affirmatives are, therefore, those which offset or corroborate a given predictive assumption: whether that assumption contains a "not" matters not at all.

By means of a simple set of symbols it was found possible to identify several distinct types of sequence and to note their variants and combinations. It is this notation and classification which the writer ventures to think may be helpful in future analyses of cultural processes.

The common elements in the hundred and fifty or so examples collected were seen to be the following:

(S₁)—a situation preliminary to the process.

(A)—an assumption, hypothesis, prediction, reputation, epithet, etc., desired (d) or undesired (u) by the responding group.

(R)—a reaction or response, favorable (c) or unfavorable (o) to the fulfillment of (A).

(S₂)—the resultant situation confirming (c), or refuting (o), the assumption (A) in actual events.

Every situation in which predictive assumptions play an active or stimulating role may be thus represented in abstract form by a sequence of letters symbolizing stages from prediction to corroboration or refutation.

The arrangement is always S₁—A—R—S₂ The small letters are attached to these large letters to indicate the *character* of A, R, and S *in relation to the responding group*. Who makes the prediction makes no difference in the letters *u* or *d*. R, the response to the expectation, is the point of departure and of reference in respect to value and interests involved. It may please me to foresee a rival's discomfiture, but if it is his reaction to my warning that is to be traced, my prediction will be symbolized as "*Au*."

For example: S₁—Ad—Rc—cS_{2d}: Mr. Pearson testified, "Dr. Jelf, the chief [of King's College] for more than twenty years, [S₁] was a gentlemen of the old school, who was incapable of supposing that any one could lie to him. [Ad] . . . It was an accepted maxim that no one could lie to the Principal [Rc] because he always believed what was said. . . . After a few months at the college, every student finding that he was treated as a gentleman, [cS_{2d}] acted up to the gentleman's code of honor."³

Most personalities present a space-time-configuration which already has momentum for reinforcing or for resistant reaction to the stimuli of incoming predictive assumptions. Our ignorance as to this pre-existent vector may lead to false prediction based upon unsound generalization.

(S₁) A girls' "protective" worker who suggested to a girl (Au) that her behavior was that of any "alley cat," took a big chance. Was she introducing the epithet into a situation where the girl's own conception of her role was such as to react compensatorily? In other words, was this epithet going to act like a business prediction

³ C. H. Pearson, *Reviews and Critical Essays*, p. 5, quoted in E. A. Ross, *Social Control*, p. 154.

in which the sight of danger rouses forces which (Ro) offset conditions giving rise to the trend? Or, was the social worker giving the girl a conception of her role without alternative, to which, therefore, she will (Rc) live down? The case as reported fortunately reacted negatively (Ro) to the epithet, and the result (oS2d) is favorable for her own role. The prediction was proved false.

Our examples vary in the degree to which the original situation provides an original momentum for the response to the prediction. Is it possible, by predictive assumption, to reverse this momentum, or at least to start from scratch, to break a dead center?

In mechanics, the phrase "dead center" is familiar. Recognizing the dangers of arguments from analogy, may we, nevertheless, assume that there may be "dead points" in personal situations, in which change approaches zero, and in which, unless the situation be enlarged by the introduction of an element previously considered extraneous (*i.e.*, a dynamic factor), the direction of change would be unpredictable by any calculus. Such situations may be called ambivalent equilibria or human quanta, or what you will. The eventual jump can be explained afterward but not predicted beforehand.

The point is, that the extraneous or novel factor (*deus ex machina*, miracle, revelation, inspiration, illusion, act of faith or luck) may be just sufficient to release all the energies in one direction, launching a chain of responses, creating a situation justifying those responses, and seeming to invalidate the opposing forces. Yet it is conceivable that the substitution of an alternate idea or accidental experience might have brought about an opposite situation equally self-validating.

The processes we are studying might, therefore, be called gyroscopic—again with a realization of the dangers of a merely mechanical analogy. Impulses consonant with the accepted values of the responding person or group confirm the inertia. Impulses contrary to this inertia are definitely resisted and offset, the values of the group or person being thereby confirmed. Only a violent push (or pull) from an outside source will change the direction of the moving equilibrium.

Since habit partakes of the nature of inertia, it may be that the response which is resistant, offsetting, reversing or tangential (Ro) requires surplus energy, analogous to that which overcomes inertia, or to the latent heat involved at critical points of solidification or evaporation. The sources and control of the surplus energy needed for the dynamic protestant responses are a separate and fascinating problem. There may also be a tendency for situations dependent largely upon cultural corroboration to break down in crisis into situations of more stable and simpler structure, unless maintained by inculcation, self-control, etc. (Ad—Ro—aS2u).⁴

Classification. The present occasion permits only the presentation of a classification of types of sequence, with no space for analysis of cases.

⁴ Cf. William A. White, *Thoughts of a Psychiatrist on the War and After*.

Type I: Acceleration, corroboration, or creation of a *desirable* situation by introduction of a predictive assumption ($S_1-Ad-Rc-cS_2d$).

Type II: The same for an undesirable situation ($S_2-Ad-Rc-cS_2n$).

Type IIa: Where the prediction and the result are unfavorable to one group, but the prediction, reactions and result are all carried out by another group which desires or at least believes the worst, for the victims of the process.

Type III: Unfavorable predictive assumptions which are corroborated by the fact that some respond by resisting or escaping the prediction—

leaving behind only those who fulfill it $\left(\begin{array}{l} S_1-Au \\ Ro-oS_2d \\ Rc-cS_2u \end{array} \right)$

Type IV: Unfavorable prediction marked by resistant, compensatory reactions sufficient to offset the prediction entirely ($S_1-Au-Ro-oS_2d$).

Type V: Unfavorable prediction with supposedly resistant reactions, which, however, prove *insufficient* to offset the prediction; or (Type Va) actually exacerbate or create the undesired condition.

Of *Type I*, which Ross called "the force of expectation," the following situations would be illustrative wish-fulfillments:

Bull market recommendations from public stockmarket advisers or leading financiers.—Friendly overtures are reciprocated.—A hitherto mediocre person rises to the occasion on a new job or emergency.—Humane prisons are orderly.—Non-fortification makes for peace.—A teacher or school trusts its pupils and finds them trustworthy.—The reorientation in psychoanalysis.—Lynching started by rumor of lynching.—'Sex necessity.'—'The necessary evil.'—The status of housekeeping.—'They're wearing them this season.'—'A melody which is growing in popularity.'—'Prohibition increases drinking.'—'Separation' of 'mind' and 'body.'—Faith cures.—Yale, Harvard, Princeton as the 'Big Three.'—Predictions of inevitability by propagandists.—A teacher who makes 'disagreeable' subjects attractive by treating them as 'treats,' or (vice versa) makes 'interesting' subjects seem disagreeable by using them as punishments.

Of *Type II*, based largely on fear or resignation, the following sequences would be examples:

Bear market predictions realized.—The phenomena of modesty and shame.—The discouraged failures of immigrant or Negro children in our schools.—The hopelessness of an alcohol or drug habit.—The discouragement (or bravado) produced by a criminal court atmosphere, in a so-called juvenile court.—Vindictive reprisals confirming fear or hate.—The rebelliousness roused in the inmates by asylums, jails, or detention homes if run like prisons, and in prisons if run like Illinois prisons.—Deaths actually produced by 'magic.'—The alleged inevitability of war.—The intrusion of the 'blame psychology' into divorce trials.—The reputation of actresses.—The man branded 'radical' who becomes so.—Lack of 'college spirit' at certain urban universities.—A chronic martyrizer courts persecution: 'people throw stones at a dog that puts his tail between his legs.'—The 'irrevocable' stigma of the non-wedlock child, or of the 'fallen' girl.—The sinfulness of sex interest.—The dissociation of carnal, romantic, and conjugal loves.—The isolation and queer-

ness of a child.—The effects of news and gossip upon unemployment, depression, election, war, revolution.

Type IIa, in which a curse is carried out by the cursers, may be exemplified by:

The *ostracism* and consequent incorrigibility of 'fallen' girls.—The *stigma* on people taken to court as prisoners.—The difficulty of Negro school-children.—The irreformability of ex-convicts.

Type III, confirming a predictive assumption by splitting the responding group, includes such cases as the following:

The Puritan condemnation of certain amusements.—The difficulties formerly experienced by progressive experiments in medical economics, in securing the best grade of doctors, etc.—The irresponsibility and thick skin of business men associated with the small loan business.—The imputation that, if parents visit a school, there has been trouble with the child.—The course reputed as a 'shark' course.—Boys who sing at school are 'sissies' (1900).—Only immoral students marry in college.—Only 'apple polishers' confer with instructors.—Unlicensed midwives are incompetent.—Casual labor is unstable and incompetent.—American tourists are a conspicuous and ridiculous nuisance.—A certain town is dubbed 'conservative.'—Only the 'dead-heads' stay on the farm.—Negro schools are inferior.—Politics are dirty.—The irresponsibility or radicalism of the I.W.W.—Crime as an accepted culture complex of gangland.—The high percent of criminals found 'feeble-minded' by 'competent' psychologists.—The predominance of sex offenders among girl delinquents.—Disbelievers in old creeds are declared, and become, 'irreligious.'—The coeducational school that gets the reputation of being a 'girls' school.'

To illustrate *Type IV*, *i.e.*, offsetting or reverse reactions to a prediction, we have:

A child who corrects or over-compensates a felt inferiority or defect.—The phenomena of negativism, 'oppression psychosis' (Miller), and 'Satanism' (Murray).—A curse or oracle 'avoided' by foreknowledge.—Tricks supposed to be effective but circumvented by becoming publicized.—Calming herd-hysteria by doing something which implies an utterly relaxed or fearless definition of the situation.—Malthus predicting positive checks, the neo-Malthusian group offsetting his doctrine.—The opposite effects of the attacks upon birth control.—The futility of censorship.⁸—Savings on the basis of a horrible example of shiftlessness.—Stereotypes of clergymen or professors make for the 'modern' minister and the tailor-made teacher.—Prediction of crime increase produces prevention programs.—Publication of 'sure-fire' tricks of cross-questioning prisoners may render the tricks futile.

Type V is represented by:

Cumulation of prejudice in so-called 'racial' situations.—Run on banks.—Gresham's Law.—Financial panics.—Fire panics.—Attempts of the innocent to escape a mob.

The difference between Type V (S₁—Au—Ro—cS_{2u}) and the earlier

⁸ *E.g.*, "Jail Terrified None but Jailer," (Great Falls, Montana, Banner Ordinance case), *New Majority*, July 10, 1920, p. 5; John Dewey, "How Reaction Helps," *New Republic*, September, 1920, pp. 21–22; Charles A. Beard, "Adventures of Censorship and Espionage," *New Republic*, August 24, 1921, pp. 350–351.

series (Type II: $S_1-Au-Rc-cS_2u$) is that the responding units, while they accept the prediction, do not accept their fate under it. They struggle against it but are mired the more surely. Similar responses to similar stimuli (rumors, cries) have produced situations which corroborate the fears or expectations.

Circular Responses. Among the examples mentioned, it will be found that (1) some are reactions within the person (autosuggestion, compensation mechanisms), (2) some show person-to-person inter-reactions, (3) some are interaction from person-to-group-to-person, (4) some are group-to-person-to-group, and (5) some are group-to-group in corporate capacity. Finally, and most numerous, (6) some sequences show diffused like-response-to-like-stimulus.

In these six groups we can see a gradual enlargement of the area of inter-stimulation-and-response. The *circular response* concept can be enlarged to include circuits outside a single organism, for the interpretation of these mechanisms associated with myths, illusion, prejudice, and other forms of predictive assumption.

Originally, "circular response" is a phrase used by physiologists to describe what happens within an organism when the original specific response to a total situation is short-circuited, *i.e.*, itself serves as a stimulus and reinforcement of similar responses—all within the organism.⁶ Allergy is supposed to partake of this pattern.

Healy enlarged the usage of the phrase to include interstimulation and response between persons, when such interaction is reinforcing to the response patterns of each party.⁷

It seems to the writer that, in *all* the corroborative sequences we have discussed, we have examples of *circular response*.

A Predictive Calculus. There are two ways of formulating predictions: in the realm of cultural prophecy and processes it will make a great difference whether or not the trend or expectation is projected as if this knowledge of the situation, and prediction thereon, were *to be made known*. If the trend is defined as incapable of being affected materially by awareness of the trend (as in predicting tides), publication itself will make little difference in the phenomena. If knowledge of the present trend is so isolated from those who *would* so react as to affect the present trend that this factor is negligible, then, too, prediction can safely be made on the basis of present trends, without regard to possible accelerating responses (Ad-Rc) or retarding responses (Au-Ro). If, on the other hand, it be expected that

⁶ Edward Kempf, "The Significance of Postural Tensions for Normal and Abnormal Human Behavior," *California and Western Medicine*, 34, Sept.-Oct. 1931, 182 ff. and 272 ff.; and "Physiology of Attitude—Emergence of Ego-organization," *Medical Record*, Feb. 6–Nov. 20, 1935, *passim*.

⁷ William Healy, "The Psychology of the Situation" in *The Child, the Clinic and the Court*, pp. 37–52, esp. pp. 41–42.

knowledge of the facts, and of the cultural prediction thereupon, will be broadcast and (as result of this knowledge) can be so acted upon as to accelerate or retard the previous curve, the social prophet has no longer a simple problem of projection. He may insert his *caveat*: "*ceteris paribus*." That is safest and easiest. If not, he must not only project his curve from the trend or from current objective conditions, but must also appraise the amount of resistance (Ro) or impetus (Rc) which will be given to the trend, the attitude or the current condition, when that trend, attitude, or current condition is *made known* to those concerned. For *cetera* are no longer *par* when to the situation is added a knowledge and appraisal of that situation which was not a part of the original situation upon which the judgment was based.

If A' be his first draft of prediction from the pre-existing conditions (S₁), his refined assumptions (A'') must be based also upon an estimate of the probable reaction (R) to A'. (S₁+A'+R') must be estimated as S₁', an imaginary projected situation different from S₁'; but S₁' is not yet S₂ (the eventual resultant to be approximated).

If he thus incorporate in his prediction an allowance for purposeful reactions to his predictions, it is even possible that he must make further allowances. He may try to incorporate allowances for his prior allowances, reflexively, like mirror images or a Chinese box: S₁ⁿ=[(S₁+A'+R')+A''+R''] + . . . Rⁿ⁺¹, until further allowance is negligible in view of the many incommensurable variables.⁸

Disillusion. One should not conclude from these selected examples that anything becomes true or feasible merely by saying so. These processes, it will be noted, all have to do with an order of events not dependent to any great extent upon "hard facts," *i.e.*, recalcitrant experience⁹ of the "natural science" order, subject to laboratory establishment by experiment or measurement. They are built up by experience or "social discovery" *without the alternate experience* which might prove equally self-corroborating. They can be broken down by the experiencing of the alternate sequence, but *only* by that process; hence their stubbornness even in the face of facts. The alternate *experience* when feasible, gives to the double experience something of the nature or effect of *experiment with "control."* S₁-Au-Rc-cS_{2u} *vs.* S₁-Ad-Rc-cS_{2d}

(S₁) An ambitious head of department may pad the catalog with advanced courses for which there are as yet no students in sight. (Ad) The predictive assumption is that there is need for the courses, that a full-fledged department has them. (Rc) The announcements look like a thriving department, attract students, and (cS_{2d}) there proves actually to be a demand for the courses; the department receives the prestige sought for.

Such results are not forthcoming, however, if facts of the lower order, such as

⁸ Cf. Kenneth Burke, *Permanence and Change*, p. 217.

⁹ *Ibid.*, pp. 327-336.

competence inadequate to the offerings, padding registration, 'selfish' or 'domineering' personality, jealousy, or indifference to classwork, lead to contrary epithets (A_{2u}) such as 'window-dressing,' 'shirt stuffing,' 'four-flushing,' etc., which set under way contrary responses (R_{2c}) which 'call' the ambitious bluff (cS_{2u}).

Other reciprocally buttressed ideologies and myths which collapse when disillusioned are:

The flat earth and geocentric universe. Ethnocentric racial dogmas. Ramsay MacDonald trying to call the Arab riots 'common murder,' or the U.S.A. trying to consider political prisoners as ordinary criminals. Personal beliefs in Christian Science when broken down by bacteria. Psychic aspects of depression and inflation.

Shakespeare said, "Nothing is but thinking makes it so," but Alice in Wonderland destroys the systematic structure of illusion by crying impiously, "You're nothing but a pack of cards!"

Reinforcement of Cultural Norms. What has been developed in these examples is, perhaps, the central proliferating and elimination process by which a group develops a culture pattern, a self-consistent (even if self-deceived) consensus, a universe of discourse, a frame of reference, or what have you, into or out of which it is hard to break, around which is a social frontier of isolation, perhaps of estrangement. Says Burrow, "A delusion that has become socially buttressed in the mutual reciprocities of its unconscious adherents is indeed impregnable."¹⁰

Catholics, anarchists, democrats, patrioteers and fascists have been alike in recognizing the importance of early education in the establishment of "axiomatic" premises (*i.e.*, assumptions) which will set up among those of the coming generation intercorroborating behaviors of the sorts called for in the desired culture pattern.

Within a cultural threshold, members of the in-group keep each other "in countenance." Reciprocal re-enforcements of rationalizations "save face." The in-group develops blind spots for alien definitions. This is true of cults (fanaticism), of combat groups (war hysteria), patriots (patrioteering), children's play (fantasy thinking), lovers (infatuation), ritualists (hocus pocus).¹¹

Looking within the cultural in-group, speaking objectively, we can only call those persons or behaviors "pathological" which violate their culturally accepted roles, *viz.*, fail to perform "successfully" *the functions agreed upon as normal for group purposes*. Even "success" and "failure" become cultural judgments, based upon values and therefore somewhat subjective in character.

Where there is a cultural consensus as to people's proper functions (*i.e.*, accepted conception of roles), departures from function will be also agreed

¹⁰ Trigant Burrow, *The Social Basis of Consciousness*, p. 175.

¹¹ Cf. Thomas D. Eliot, "Insanity, Relativity, and Group Formation," *The Open Court*, May, 1928.

upon, by corollary. Indeed, it may be that general agreement in regard to violations has given rise to the defining (delimiting) of the *norms* of behavior, rather than *vice versa*. Variants, personal or behavioristic, will be defined by popular epithet, which, like normality, will attach not to the total situation (as they should) but to the person, individualistically, as a *psychic* "trait," or will be imputed to the individual, biologically, as an *organic* or *inherent* "trait."

Many conditions which, though attributed to individuals merely, really represent situations¹² in interaction, are of a sort which lend themselves to the self-corroboration analysis. As examples we cite Prestige, Insanity, Degeneracy, Crime, Leadership, Genius. Each of these properly describes not a trait but a situation created by the agreed belief or accepted definition of the situation, and perpetuated by circular response and interaction.

Group unity, morale, or cultural consensus cannot only be built up, but may also be destroyed by the same process working as a "vicious" circle; for example: S₁-Au-Rc-cS_{2u}:

(S₁) A *group* being naïvely considered as a "thing" rather than a "process," (Au) there is said to be no such entity as a "group," a "community spirit," a "soul of the people," "The Church" or "The State." They are results of the "group fallacy,"¹³ of self-corroboratory cultural illusions. (Rc) We behave as if there were nothing but individuals, atomistically interacting as utilitarian observers with enlightened self-interest, using "group situations" as means, individualism as the end. (cS_{2u}) The participant morale or we-feeling, which is the essence of the group process, ceases.

Conclusion. Reality has been defined in terms of corroboration. Seeing is believing, but an optical experience is an illusion if it can be disproved by subsequent measurements, provided we do not suspect a rubber yardstick. The startling effects from a stereoscopic cinema are checked by immediate recourse to the relatively stable frame of reference provided by the kin-aesthetic and other senses. When one distrusts one's own senses, one uses instruments or asks others to verify: "Do you see what I see?" is, in a sense, the essence of the scientific attitude.

It is in the realm of the subjective that verification becomes not sensuous but cultural. Enteroceptors rather than exteroceptors are involved; and stimuli within the autonomic and central nervous systems are stimuli on the symbolic level, the level of cultural meanings and values. Here is indeed the area where "nothing is but thinking makes it so," for reality is here found in perduration of satisfactions rather than in sense-verifiability of situations. For example, if we believe "that a reality underlies the social concept 'good family,'" its subjectivity, its lack of laboratory testability,

¹² Cf. Thomas D. Eliot, "A Limbo for Cruel Words," *The Survey*, June 15, 1922.

¹³ Cf. Floyd Allport, *passim*. Bibliography in Dean Cornell, "A Re-examination of Allport's Theory of Group Fallacy," unpublished thesis, Northwestern University, 1934.

¹⁴ Cf. Trigant Burrow, *op. cit.*, p. 140.

does not discredit its reality, which is confirmed in the intensity of the belief through interaction in a culture which accepts this "goodness." In such matters the test of reality is *experience*, whereas the test of merely sensuous actuality is *experiment*.

Some facts and laws seem thoroughly stabilized because so widely and persistently verified by successive tests. Yet the natural sciences are from time to time revolutionized and reoriented by some new and tangential fact. Some *cultural* "facts" and "laws" may last as long, seem as real, as those of the natural sciences. That is to say, experience has corroborated some cultural beliefs for as long a time as experiment has corroborated some "scientific" dogmas.

Scientific method is itself a sequence like some of those we have examined, but its wishes are not horses. A hypothesis is a predictive assumption, but it is verified or nullified not by interested responses but by disinterested observation.¹⁵ And the resultant situation in science is never considered final: it is always subject to the *diabolus ex machina*, the test of the $n+1$ fact, which may so change the observed situation as to destroy the proof and set up a new hypothesis, A_2 .

"The vicious circle" is a commonplace figure. Not all circular interaction, however, is vicious.

Whether the hypothesis of this paper is verifiable by experiment, or by experience, or not at all, remains to be seen. Perhaps all this has been mere elaboration of the obvious. On the other hand, a contribution may have been made in the definition and analysis of several typical sequence patterns common to widely scattered situations and varieties of assumptions; in the method of dissecting these situations for classification; in tracing certain possible implications of circular responses to the point of isolating new problems in the processes of cultural reinforcement or change which are subject matter of sociological analysis and objects of social control. Closer analysis may lead to experimentation, measurement and control of these mechanisms, and thus to their more effective application.

¹⁵ The power to value, which is the power to motivate, is held in abeyance.

Census of Current Research

REPORT OF RESEARCH CENSUS OF 1937

The results of the 1937 census of social research conducted by the American Sociological Society appear below. The items are classified to correspond to the sections and the divisions of the American Sociological Society. As far as possible the author's own description and classification of his project is allowed to determine its classification in this report. The items are arranged alphabetically in each section by names of the authors.

As usual, it has been necessary to omit below a number of projects reported because of one or more of the reasons stated in my preface to the 1934 report (*Amer. Jour. Soc.*, 40, Sept. 1934, 221-222).

GEORGE A. LUNDBERG

Chairman, Committee on Social Research

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

(See also 56, 112, 185, 206, 210)

1. **The Black Legion.** Elmer Akers, 515 Monroe Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Background—economic and social conditions out of which it arose and which favored its development; its social psychology; sociological implications.
2. **The Nature of Race Conflict.** H. C. Brearley, Clemson Agricultural College, Clemson, S. C.
3. **Relation of Personal and Social Disorganization.** Ruth Shonle Cavan, 1608 Crosby Street, Rockford, Ill. A study of natural catastrophes (earthquakes, tidal waves, floods, etc.) involving personal and social disorganization.
4. **A Social-Psychological Study of the Population of a Government Slum Clearance Project.** F. Stuart Chapin, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn. Usual housing data, supplemented by standardized scales to measure morale, personality adjustment, social status and social participation.
5. **Stereotypes in the Presidential Campaign of 1936.** Paul F. Cressey, Wheaton College, Norton, Mass. All the formal campaign speeches of Mr. Landon and Mr. Roosevelt, and the platforms of the Republican and Democratic Parties.
6. **Educational Success (Jr. and Sr. High School) of Children of Relief Clients.** Albert E. Croft, Wichita University, Wichita, Kansas. 1500 cases of native white parentage predominantly descended from old New England stock.
7. **An Analysis of Social Cohesion on the Hutterite Communities.** Lee Emerson Deets, University of South Dakota, Vermillion, S. D. Includes the "Schmiedlen leut'" group of about 1500 in South Dakota and Manitoba.
8. **Social Cohesion in the Hutterite Communities.** *Idem.* An explanation and interpretation of the patterns of causal inter-relationships in a communal, sectarian society. Included are change and conflict.
9. **Psychic Aspects of Communal Living.** *Idem.* The freedom from neurosis of people in a society (the sectarian, communistic Hutterites) which while greatly restricting the individual, lacks economic competition and emphasis upon the success pattern, dominance and status.
10. **Cultural Areas in Race Relations.** Bertram W. Doyle, Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee. A study of areas of influence in the South, with respect to race relations, based upon population percentages, crop reports, local history and tradition.
11. **Sociological Causes of Genius.** Robert E. L. Faris, Brown University, Providence, R. I. Life history data wherever available, especially contemporary talented persons.

12. **Transition from Familism to Nationalism Among Chinese in Hawaii.** Clarence E. Glick, Department of Sociology, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, T. H. A brief statement of the changes occurring in the direction of the group loyalties of Chinese in Hawaii during the past fifty years, as indicated in the types of societies organized by them and in the forms of group participation most prevalent from time to time.
13. **The Meanings of Manual Autistic Gestures.** Maurice H. Krout, 4316 Lexington St., Chicago, Ill. The data consist of newspaper photographs showing autistic gestures.
14. **Experimental Equivalents of Autistic Manual Gestures.** *Idem.* The data for this study consist of observations carried out on ten subjects in an attempt to secure, under experimental conditions, thirty types of autistic gestures.
15. **Personality Development and Radical Attitudes.** *Idem.* The material for this study consists of a schedule of 222 items filled out by 50 members of radical parties and 100 non-radicals acting as controls.
16. **Friendship Patterns in a New England Village.** George A. Lundberg, Bennington College, Bennington, Vt. Data for entire village of 1,000 collected through interviews and correlated with socio-economic status and other personal and cultural data.
17. **Social Nucleation in a New England Township.** *Idem.* Data collected through canvass of rural township containing five villages. Location of communities by Galpin's technique. Inter-community relations. Friendship nuclei within communities.
18. **The Measurement of Social Status.** *Idem.* Survey of attempts at objective designation of social gradations and an attempt to formulate explicit hypotheses for the testing of what is alleged to be known at present regarding the behavior variously described as class, caste, prestige, domination-submission, repulsion-attraction, social distance, etc.
19. **The Influence of Stereotyped Phrases on Opinions.** Selden C. Menefee, University of Washington, Seattle, Wash. Based on questionnaires given to 225 sociology and psychology students at the University of Washington, during the 1936 political campaign.
20. **Patterns of Friendship: A Study in Social Relationships.** Robert K. Merton, 206 Emerson Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. Cases will be drawn largely from the contemporary urban middle classes. Data will consist of results of direct observation, informal interview, memoirs, life histories, participant observation.
21. **Responsibility. Its effects in social life, especially in economic life.** Hanna Meuter, Cologne-Nippes, Germany, Franziskastr. 1.
22. **The Relation Between Social Disorganization and Personality Disorganization.** Ernest R. and Harriet R. Mowrer, 2214 Sherman Avenue, Evanston, Ill. Collection of personal histories in an attempt to determine what types of adjustment have been made to the crises of the depression in terms of the personality patterns of the individuals.
23. **Occupation and General Well-Being: Prestige of Social utility of different occupations as reflected in social attitudes of twelve different occupational groups.** Dr. Antonin Obrdlik, Brno-Neumannova 32, Czechoslovakia. Situation in today's Czechoslovakia; analysis of more than nine hundred questionnaires.
24. **The Sociology of Collective Behavior.** Harold A. Phelps, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.
25. **Social Organization as Influenced by Scientific Management.** Paul Pigors, 92 Washington Ave., Cambridge, Mass. Covering such organizations as General Electric, Westinghouse, Goodrich Rubber, New England Telephone, Ford Motor, etc.
26. **Socio-Recreational Activities of 1900 High School Boys and Girls.** T. Earl Sullenger, Dept. of Sociology, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska.
27. **Types of Occupational Attitudes and Publics.** Walter T. Watson, Associate Professor of Sociology, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas.
28. **Social Process in the Turkish Reformation.** Donald E. Webster, Claremont, California. Turkey since 1923. Newspapers, magazines, pamphlets, school texts, government and semi-official reports and statistics, propaganda publications of the People's Party. Several hundred items.
29. **Bio-Social Characteristics of American Inventors.** Sanford Winston, North Carolina State College, Raleigh, North Carolina. An analysis of data for 346 inventors included in the Dictionary of American Biography. Includes material on birthplace, mobility, age at first invention, other occupations, economic status, marital status, longevity, etc.
30. **Demographic Study of Foreign-born Contributors to American Culture.** *Idem.* Data for 2,200 foreign-born who have attained leadership.
31. **Social Isolation.** Margaret Mary Wood, Limestone College, Gaffney, South Carolina. The projection is confined to a study of situations in which a sense of isolation is experienced by an individual because he is deprived of full participation in certain of the social relationships enjoyed by others of his group.

HISTORY AND THEORY

(See also 278)

32. *Emile Durkheim and his Sociology*. Harry Alpert, 509 West 121st Street, New York, N. Y.
33. *Implications of a Postulate Treatment of Social Theory for Social Research*. Raymond V. Bowers, University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.
34. *Some Proposed Integrations in Sociological Theory*. *Idem*.
35. *Man and Society in Eighteenth-Century Thought*. Gladys Bryson, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.
36. *The Scottish Montesquieu: Adam Ferguson*. *Idem*.
37. *A Systematic Quantitative Sociology*. Stuart C. Dodd, American University of Beirut, Beirut, Lebanon. Photostats of 1200 sample graphs, tables, and quantified social situations have been collected from every one of the social sciences from journals, textbooks, and monographs published since 1919.
38. *Inventory of Social Studies of Rochester*. C. Luther Fry, assisted by Samuel Steele and Ruth Goodman, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York.
39. *An Inquiry into the Adaptability of the Vertical Union for the Occupational Group System*. Joseph James Henninger, S.J., St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Mo.
40. *A Study of Public Welfare in the State of Wisconsin by a Citizens Committee of 33, appointed by the Governor*. J. H. Kolb, College of Agriculture, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.
41. *The Use of Negro Slaves in the Early Mining Industry of Virginia*. James T. Laing, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.
42. *An Economic and Social History of the Negro in Haiti*. James G. Leyburn, 1406 Yale Station, New Haven, Conn.
43. *The Postulates of Contemporary Natural Science and their Implications for Systematic Sociology*. An introduction to a systematic sociology. George A. Lundberg, Bennington College, Bennington, Vt.
44. *The Folkways of Art*. John H. Mueller, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.
45. *Class Structure*. Cecil C. North, Ohio State University, Columbus Ohio. A study of the nature of class distinctions and of the variations in class groupings in different societies.
46. *Social and Cultural Dynamics: Basic Problems, Principles, and Methods*. P. A. Sorokin, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
47. *The History of the Care of Dependent and Neglected Children in Imperial Russia from 800 through 1914*. Ludmilla Suntzeff, 231 Georgia Ave., Ferguson, Missouri.
48. *What is this Progress: Paul L. Vogt*. An analysis of the Scientific and Philosophical Bases of Social Planning.
49. *Outline of Sociology*. Dr. J. J. von Schmid, Assistant-professor Sociologist of Leiden University, Rijn-en Schiekade 5, Leiden, Holland.

METHODS OF RESEARCH

(See also 18, 43, 61, 81, 99, 112, 232, 278)

50. *The Sampling Problem in Observational Studies of Behavior in Uncontrolled Situations*. Ruth E. Arrington, 333 Cedar Street, New Haven, Conn.
51. *Validity and Operationalism: Problems in Research Methodology*. Raymond V. Bowers, University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y.
52. *Success or Failure on Parole of One Thousand Paroles from the Wisconsin State Reformatory*. J. L. Gillin, Professor of Sociology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.
53. *Harvard Law School Crime Survey*. Sheldon Glueck, with collaboration of Frank Loveland, Jr., Hans Wiess and Norman D. Lattin, Harvard Law School, Cambridge, Mass. Sentencing practices of the Courts, probation, penal and correctional institutions, parole, and the pardoning power.
54. *The Second Five-Year Follow-up Study of the Careers of the 510 Criminals Included in "Five Hundred Criminal Careers."* Sheldon Glueck and Eleanor T. Glueck, Harvard Law School, Cambridge, Mass.
55. *Measurement of Changes in the Standard of Living during the Depression*. Leslie Alice Koempel, Instructor in Sociology, Skidmore College, Saratoga Springs, N. Y. A study of workers' families in a small industrial community.
56. *San Francisco Chinatown*. Richard T. LaPiere, Stanford University, California. A study of social adaptation, with special reference to the processes by which adaptive changes of the old Chinese peasant culture have been worked out.
57. *The Use of Occupational Data in Determining Urban Cultural Patterns (for medium-sized cities)*. Murray H. Leiffer, 721 Foster Street, Evanston, Illinois.

58. *The Measurement of Social Interaction in Group Discussion.* Delbert Miller, Dept. of Sociology, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

59. *A Study of Duration of Occupancy of Tenant Families in New York City.* William Stewart Robinson, Columbia University, New York, N. Y. Multiple (curvilinear) correlation analysis to determine the net relation of several factors to duration of occupancy in each borough of New York City separately. Detailed sociological analysis to discover the "why" of the net regression curves. An experiment in the statistical determination of culture-pattern elements; i.e. in determining significant differences between the boroughs with respect to curves of general behavior.

60. *Preparing an Index to House Numbers in the County of St. Louis by Statistical Areas.* Irving Weissman, Community Council of St. Louis, 613 Locust Street, St. Louis, Missouri.

SOCIAL STATISTICS

(See also 270, 271, 272, 274, 275)

61. *Some Objective Indices of Sociability in Young Children.* Ruth E. Arrington, 333 Cedar Street, New Haven, Conn. The average frequency of speech to other children per five-minute sample and the average number of different children addressed per five-minute period are evaluated as indices of functional sociability. Comparable measures of average tendency and of variability were obtained for 41 nursery school children, 50 kindergarten children, and 29 first-grade children.

62. *Trends in Volume of Hospital Service in New York State.* Dr. Robert Axel, New York State Dept. of Social Welfare, 80 Center Street, New York, N. Y. Covers New York State for the calendar year 1912 through 1936.

63. *Social Economic Planning in the Soviet Union.* Dr. Mildred Fairchild, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pa. The techniques and social and economic results of planned economy in the Soviet Union, covering the period from 1928 to 1936.

64. *Comparative Costs of Direct Relief and Work Relief.* Edward T. Frankel, Director of Research and Statistics, T.E.R.A., 79 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. New York State, 1934-1935. Reports from local relief agencies.

65. *Movements of Families within the Cleveland Metropolitan District.* Howard Whipple Green, Director, Real Property Inventory of Metropolitan Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio. Analysis of records showing movement of the families in this community over a period of one year.

66. *Births and Deaths.* *Idem.* Cuyahoga County, Ohio, 1919-1935, 500,000 birth and death certificates analyzed.

67. *Relief in Cleveland in 1934, 1935 and 1936.* *Idem.*

68. *Real Property Inventory of the Cleveland Metropolitan District and Cuyahoga County.* *Idem.* Including Industrial Survey, Street Frontage, Office Buildings, Downtown Population, etc.

69. *Dispensary Patients and Economic Status.* *Idem.* Geographical distribution of new patients attending outpatient departments of various Cleveland hospitals, made by census tracts, 1935.

70. *Effects of the Depression on Differential Fertility and Mortality.* P. M. Hauser, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill. Based on a study of approximately 300,000 births and 200,000 deaths in the City of Chicago for the period 1928-1933 inclusive.

71. *Study of Adjustment Made by Unmarried Mothers Who Retained or Released their Children.* Dorothy Ketcham, Social Service Dept., University Hospital, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Study covers 10 year period.

72. *The Effective Income and Cost of Living in a Vermont Village.* Marie Maguire, Bennington College, Bennington, Vt. Detailed data on total family income and costs of standardized budgets.

73. *The Employment and Training of the Urban Negro Worker, 1925-1936.* Ira De A. Reid, Atlanta University, Atlanta, Georgia. Statistical questionnaire-interview study in 90 selected cities, covering 200,000 workers classified as "white collar" and "skilled" on basis of an adaptation of Alba Edwards' socio-economic groupings.

74. *A Statistical Study of Truancy in the White Public Elementary Schools of St. Louis.* Lenore E. Schierding, 631 Washington Street, St. Charles, Missouri.

75. *Old Age Assistance in New York State.* Dr. David M. Schneider, New York State Dept. of Social Welfare, Albany, N. Y. and Dr. Robert Axel, New York State Dept. of Social Welfare, 80 Center St., New York, N. Y. Covers New York State for eight months ending June 30, 1937.

76. *Unemployment Relief in Arizona, 1932-1936, with Special Analysis of Rural Relief Households.* E. D. Tetreau, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona.

77. *Demand for Agricultural Labor on Arizona Irrigated Farms.* *Idem.*

78. **The Wealth of St. Louis: an analysis of wills filed with the Probate Court of St. Louis, showing the value of estates, what they consisted of, how they were distributed, and to whom.** Irving Weissman, Community Council of St. Louis, 613 Locust Street, St. Louis, Missouri. Covers approximately 2,100 wills filed a year with the St. Louis Probate Court.

79. **A Study of Inter-city Differences in Campaign Results.** *Idem.* A comparison of 16 cities according to 22 selected characteristics.

80. **Population Changes and their Effect on Occupational Distribution and Changes in Age Distribution of Gainfully Employed Persons.** Chase Going Woodhouse, Institute of Women's Professional Relations, Connecticut College, New London, Connecticut.

81. **Factor Analysis of Magazine Circulation.** Rowena Wyant, Bennington College, Bennington, Vt. Circulation of 25 magazines in 90 American Cities, over 100,000 population; 300 coefficients of correlation between circulation of these magazines with each other.

82. **Magazines in American Cities. Who Reads What, How Much, Why.** Rowena Wyant, Bennington College and Paul F. Lazarsfeld, University of Newark, Newark, N. J. Subscription and newstand circulations of 25 magazines in 90 American cities (over 100,000 pop.) in comparison with the geographical location of cities, size, age composition, percent foreign, negroes, industrialization, number of taxable incomes, educational expenditures, prevalence of movies.

SOCIAL BIOLOGY

(See also 80, 117, 139)

83. **Effects of Certain Family Situations on Fertility Rates.** Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., Dept. of Rural Social Organization, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. Data from 1000 couples regarding place in family of husband and wife; size of family of husband and of wife; happiness of the marriages of the parents of husband and of wife; all correlated with the fertility rates of the couples. Also fertility correlated with marriage adjustment scores of the couples.

84. **Durham's "Surplus" Female Population: Migration and Urbanization.** Irvin Dunskey, Box 4148, Duke Station, Durham, North Carolina.

85. **Rural Population Mobility in North Dakota.** Donald G. Hay, State College Station, North Dakota.

86. **Fears of Depopulation: Are they Valid?** Norman E. Himes, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York. An examination in the light of history and logic. Data for U.S.A. and countries of N. & W. Europe.

87. **Demographic Trends in Maine, 1870-1930.** Herbert D. Lamson, 77 Bennoch St., Orono, Maine.

88. **Population Trends in a Census Tract City of less than 250,000 (Syracuse, N. Y.)** W. C. Lehmann, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York.

89. **Ethnic Composition of Mundelein College.** S. M. Liguori, Mundelein College, Chicago, Illinois.

90. **Effects of the Depression on Population Factors in Wisconsin.** Thomas C. McCormick, assisted by Paul Glick, Sterling Hall, Madison, Wisconsin.

91. **Migration in Wisconsin (inter-county, rural-urban, inter-state).** *Idem.*, assisted by Walter Perkins. Wisconsin, 1920-1936, especially since 1930. Data from public records, state income tax, unemployment registers.

92. **A Study of the Relation between the Extent of Soil Fertility Depletion and Erosion and the Movement and Character of Farm Population in Illinois.** H. W. Mumford and D. E. Lindstrom, College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

93. **Race and Cultural Adjustment in Bahia, Brazil.** Donald Pierson, c/o Consulado Americano, Bahia, Brazil.

94. **The Negro Immigrant in the United States.** Ira De A. Reid, Atlanta University, Atlanta, Ga. Covers Negro immigration during the period 1890-1936.

95. **An Examination of Sundbarg's Hypotheses of Age Composition of Population with Reference to the United States.** Mapheus Smith, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas and Percy A. Robert, Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.

96. **A Study of Ethnic Assimilation in Omaha.** T. Earl Sullenger, Dept. of Sociology, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska.

97. **Differential Migration.** Dorothy S. Thomas, 333 Cedar Street, New Haven, Connecticut. Eleven communities Västmanlands County, Sweden, 1895-1930. Records of all internal migrants to and from each community (about 250,000 cases) abstracted in terms of age, sex, family status of migrants; economic type of community of origin or destination; distance spanned in migration.

98. **Population Trends.** *Idem.* Sweden, 1895-1933; "homogeneous" economic areas by regions; agricultural, rural mixed, rural industrial, industrial towns, cities, etc.

99. **A Social Index.** H. Woolston, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. Com-

binning census data from any source available, to present a simple quantitative statement showing important relations of a group, and permitting easy comparison with others.

SOCIOLOGY AND PSYCHIATRY

100. *Study of Diagnosis in Differential Case Work Treatment in a Family Agency.* Maurine Boic, 4235 Sansom Stret, Philadelphia, Pa.
101. *The Correlation of Certain Indices of Social Pathology with Political Behavior in Rural Populations.* Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr., and Milton Rossoff, Dept. of Rural Social Organization, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.
102. *A Comparative Study of the Personality Traits of the Catatonic and Paranoid Schizophrenic in Different Type Urban Areas.* H. Warren Dunham, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois.
103. *Ecological Study of Mental Disorders in Providence,* R. I. Robert E. L. Faris, Brown University, Providence, R. I.
104. *The Nature of Drug Addiction.* Alfred R. Lindesmith, Dept. of Sociology, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Data secured from intensive and repeated interviews with about 50 Chicago addicts over a period of about three years.
105. *A Psycho-cultural Analysis of the Alcoholic.* Harriet R. Mowrer, 2214 Sherman Avenue, Evanston, Illinois.

HUMAN ECOLOGY

(See also 103, 166)

106. *Accommodation and Assimilation of Southern White Migrants to Detroit.* Elmer Akers, 515 Monroe Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan and Milton Kemnitz, R. #1, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
107. *The Acculturation of the Eastern Cherokee.* Leonard Bloom, Dept. of Sociology, Duke University, Durham, N. C.
108. *Ecological Study of a Non-Industrial Community—Lexington, Kentucky.* Morris G. Caldwell, Frazee Hall, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.
109. *Location and Mobility of Physicians in the Chicago Area, 1912-34.* Michael M. Davis, 5816 Blackstone Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
110. *Development of Collective Enterprise, with Especial Reference to Factors in Economic Change of this Class.* Seba Eldridge, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.
111. *Ecological Study of Rochester, New York.* C. Luther Fry, University of Rochester, Rochester, New York.
112. *The Prediction of Inventions and their Social Consequences.* S. C. Gilfillan, Ph.D., 5623 Blackstone Ave., Chicago, Ill. The best writings of past prophets anywhere, in years 1890-1920, and a consideration of the latest and expected inventions in a number of lines, for their expected social effects.
113. *Archaeology of South Central Utah.* John P. Gillin, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah.
114. *Impact of the Machine on the Primary Mores of China.* E. D. Harvey, 20 Livingston Street, New Haven, Connecticut.
115. *Regional Population Structure of the North Central States.* E. T. Hiller, 328 Lincoln Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.
116. *Regional distribution of medical practitioners.* *Idem.* Ratios of doctors to population, and their age, type of training, and mobility, tested by regions and zones of regions in sample areas of Illinois for selected dates since 1890.
117. *Houseboat and River-Bottoms Population.* *Idem.*
118. *Urbanization and Industrialization of the French-Canadian Population of Quebec.* Everett C. Hughes and Helen MacGill Hughes, McGill University, Montreal, Quebec.
119. *Organization of the Mexican Settlement in South Chicago.* Robert C. Jones, 5337 Ellis Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
120. *Growth and Shift of Delinquency Areas in Montgomery, Alabama, 1923-36.* W. L. Leap, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama.
121. *A Study in Intra-Urban and Urban-Regional Mobility.* W. C. Lehmann, Syracuse University, Syracuse, New York.
122. *The Medium-Sized City, a Stage in Urban Development.* Murray H. Leiffer, 721 Foster Street, Evanston, Illinois.
123. *The Chicago Stock Exchange.* Francis E. Merrill, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire.
124. *Theories of Regionalism.* Harry E. Moore, Department of Sociology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

125. *Social Disorganization in Chicago During the Depression.* Ernest R. Mowrer, Department of Sociology, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.
126. *Debtor Areas in Cities—Is It Possible to Identify Loss Incurring Areas Whose Renovation Can Be Justified on Economic Grounds?* Stuart A. Queen, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.
127. *Social and Economic Processes in the Southeastern Low-Country.* William H. Roney, Box 4148, Duke Station, Durham, North Carolina.
128. *The Distribution of Plantation Societies Around the World.* Edgar T. Thompson, Duke University, Durham, North Carolina.
129. *The Natural Areas of the City of Vancouver.* B. C. C. W. Topping, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B. C., Canada.
130. *Ecological Study of Omaha.* T. Earl Sullenger, Dept. of Sociology, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska.
131. *Ecological Data—Detroit, Michigan.* C. C. Van Vechten, in collaboration with L. D. Upson and others, 5135 Cass Avenue, Detroit, Michigan. Covers age, sex, nationality, families, school population, density for census tracts.

RURAL SOCIOLOGY

(See also 77, 85, 92)

132. *A Thoroughgoing Sociological Investigation of Krasnořov, a Typical Country-Village in Czechoslovakia, in its Past and its Present.* Professor In. Arn. Bláha, Brno—Neumannova 32, Czechoslovakia.
133. *Agricultural Villages during the Depression.* Edmund deS. Brunner, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
134. *Some More Recent Trends in Rural Planning.* William E. Cole, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee.
135. *Rural Hospital Needs.* Michael M. Davis, 5816 Blackstone Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. Aim is to define social, economic and technical criteria for need and practicability of hospitals in rural areas through studies of selected areas.
136. *A Socio-Historical Study of an Agricultural County in the Great Plains.* Allen D. Edwards, 2625 Third Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.
137. *Social Selection in Rural-Urban Migrations in Kansas.* Noel P. Gist and Carroll D. Clark, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.
138. *Social and Economic Significance of Farm Leasing Systems.* C. Horace Hamilton, Economist in Rural Life Problems, Texas Agricultural Experiment Station, College Station, Texas.
139. *Population Trends and Problems in Texas.* *Idem.*
140. *A Study of Trends of Social Organizations and Agencies in North Dakota, 1926-1936.* Donald G. Hay, State College Station, North Dakota.
141. *Membership and Activities of Social Organizations in Selected Areas of North Dakota, 1936.* *Idem.*
142. *Rural Relief Changes in Wisconsin.* George W. Hill, 315 Agricultural Hall, College of Agriculture, Madison, Wisconsin.
143. *Tenancy and Labor in Sugar Cane Production.* Harold Hoffsommer, Experiment Station, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
144. *The Small Town in Washington, Its Functions, Its Population, and Growth Trends.* Paul H. Landis, 204 College Hall, Pullman, Washington.
145. *An Inventory of the Human Resources of Rural Colorado.* Olaf F. Larson, Colorado State College, Fort Collins, Colorado.
146. *A Type-Study of Selected Social Aspects of Land Utilization.* *Idem.*
147. *Economic and Social Status of Spanish-American and Mexican Beet Laborers on Relief.* *Idem.*
148. *An Exploratory Study of Farm Family Living.* *Idem.* and R. W. Roberts.
149. *Effectiveness of 4-H Club Work.* D. E. Lindstrom and associates, 220 New Agricultural Building, Urbana, Illinois.
150. *Rural Community Trends and Planning in Arkansas.* W. H. Metzler, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas.
151. *Characteristics of Rehabilitation Clients in Arkansas.* *Idem.*
152. *Cultural Contributions of the Agricultural Extension Service.* Marjorie Patten under direction of Edmund deS. Brunner, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.
153. *The Social Organization of New York Rural Communities.* Robert A. Polson, Department of Rural Social Organization, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.
154. *The Place of the Country Weekly.* Carl F. Reuss, Box 1114, University, Virginia.
155. *Membership Relations of Farmer's Milk Marketing Associations in New York State.*

Dwight Sanderson and Duane Gibson, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

156. *Relief Intensity Gradients*. Mapheus Smith, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas. Relief data for January 1935 related to population by county, 1930. For four states (California, Nebraska, New York, and Virginia).

157. *Supply of Agricultural Labor for Arizona Irrigated Farms*. E. D. Tetreau, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona.

158. *Arizona Population Trends*. *Idem*.

159. *The Status, Qualifications, Interests and Needs of Rural Youth, 15-29 Years of Age, in Selected North Carolina Communities*. (Author not indicated—Ed.)

160. *Types of Rural Communities*. Carle C. Zimmerman, 200 Emerson Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

161. *Rural Societal Evolution in the Palouse Country of Eastern Washington*. Fred R. Yoder, Head, Department of Sociology, State College of Washington, Pullman, Washington.

EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

(See also 6)

162. *A Study of the Content of Courses in Sociology in Secondary Schools of Eleven Southern States*. Belle Boone Beard, Sweet Briar College, Sweet Briar, Virginia.

163. *The College Professor in America*. Claude C. Bowman, Department of Sociology, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

164. *A Social History of Higher Education in the Middle West*. Jordan T. Cavan and Ruth Shonle Cavan, Rockford College, Rockford, Illinois.

165. *The Social Role of the Motion Picture in an Interstitial Area*. Paul G. Cressey, 132 McCosh Road, Upper Montclair, New Jersey.

166. *Ecological Organization of Public School Data in Sample Regions of Illinois*. E. T. Hiller, 328 Lincoln Hall, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

167. *The Social and Economic Background of Kent State University Students*. James T. Laing, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio.

168. *A New Type of Inventory of Educational Achievement*. Charles C. Peters, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa. Analytic self-testimony about one's behavior, paralleling the 68 items in Peters' *Blueprint of Personal Culture*. Various statistical tests of validity and of interrelation of parts.

169. *Social Evaluation of Two St. Louis Schools for Retarded Over-Age Pupils*. Catherine Tillman, St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.

170. *Effect of Depression and Recovery on Higher Education*. Malcolm M. Willey, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

171. *Social Background of College Freshmen*. Sanford Winston, North Carolina State College, Raleigh, North Carolina.

COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

(See also 7, 8, 9, 16, 17, 52, 59, 63, 65, 82)

172. *A Study of Social Organization and Planning in Dutchess County, New York*. Mrs. Martha Collins Bayne, under supervision of Professor Genieve Lamson, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.

173. *Effect of the Depression on Libraries (National Survey) and the Effect of the Depression on The St. Louis Public Library (Local survey)*. Doralouise Britt, Esther Cope, Mildred Givens, Stella Koetter, Ethel Weitkamp, St. Louis Public Library, St. Louis, Missouri.

174. *Plus and Minus Adjustment Factors in Selected Areas in an Automobile City (Flint)*. L. J. Carr and Mrs. Ella Hames, 307 Haven Hall, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Four out of 41 housing survey districts in city of Flint selected for an intensive survey, two having highest delinquency rates, one medium rate and one a low rate.

175. *The Legal and Administrative Aspects of Old Age Assistance in Missouri with Special Reference to the Social Security Act*. Catherine Casady, McMillan Hall, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.

176. *Patterns of Delinquent Behavior and Community Organization*. Albert E. Croft, Wichita University, Wichita, Kansas.

177. *A Critical Study of the Desirability of the Thirty-Hour Week in the Portland Raising Trades Arbitration*. Sister Helen Miriam Doran, H.N., St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.

178. *Chinese Migrants in Hawaii: A Study in Accommodation*. Clarence E. Glick, Department of Sociology, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, T. H.

179. *The Chinese Tong in Hawaii*. *Idem*. Hawaiian Islands; 1875 to date; largely firsthand

case studies of individual tongs; some statistical data on formal side of the organizations; case studies of tong members. Translations of Chinese materials.

180. *A Sociological Investigation in Neslovice—Moravian village in Czechoslovakia*. M. Hájek, Sociological Department, Masaryk University, Brno, Czechoslovakia.

181. *Distribution of income groups in Detroit, Michigan*. Edgar C. Hornik, 226 Colorado Avenue, Highland Park, Michigan.

182. *A Tri-Racial Community in Robeson County*. N. C. Guy B. Johnson, Box 652, Chapel Hill, North Carolina.

183. *Factors that Contribute to the Success or Failure of Consumers' Retail Store Co-operation*. L. C. Kercher, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

184. *Social and Health Work in the Metropolitan Area Comprising Pittsburgh and Allegheny County*. Philip Klein, New York School of Social Work, 122 East 22nd Street, New York, N. Y.

185. *The Daily Newspaper in America: The Evolution of a Social Instrument*. Alfred McClung Lee, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.

186. *Inter-Marriage in Syracuse, New York*. W. C. Lehmann, Syracuse, N. Y. For select years (1908-09; 1917-18; 1925-26; 1933-34) covering some 5000 marriage licenses in which one or both of contracting parties was foreign born or of foreign parentage, to determine inter-marriage between generations (nativity categories) and nationality groups.

187. *A Study of Community Centers in St. Louis with a View to the Solution of Existing Problems*. Brother Hubert Francis Leies, S.M., B.S., St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.

188. *Survey of Youth in Arkansas*. A. C. London, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas. Approximately 600 youth in a typical mountain and representative coastal plains community in Arkansas. Data include family size, education, tenure or occupation, income and residence as related to the youth being in school, at work, or unemployed, etc.

189. *Divorce in a Community of 100,000 Population*. Clarence W. Schroeder, Bradley Polytechnic Institute, Peoria, Illinois.

190. *Techniques Used by Group Workers in Guiding Leisure-time Activities*. Vesta M. Sonne, Radnor Hall, Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania.

191. *The History and Social Organization of the Negro in Dutchess County, New York*. Elisabeth Strother, under supervision of Joseph K. Folsom, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.

192. *Suicides and Attempted Suicides in Omaha*. T. Earl Sullenger, Dept. of Sociology, Municipal University of Omaha, Omaha, Nebraska.

193. *Texas Town: A study in the sociology and the social psychology of urbanization*. Walter T. Watson, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas.

194. *The Year 1936 in St. Louis Social Work*. Irving Weissman, Community Council of St. Louis, 613 Locust Street, St. Louis, Missouri.

195. *Revision of the Social Service Directory of St. Louis and St. Louis County*. *Idem*.

196. *Catholic Activities Among the Negro in St. Louis*. John T. White, S.J., St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.

197. *Recreation Study of Dutchess County, New York*. Marian Wiggers, under supervision of Joseph K. Folsom, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.

198. *Industrial Towns During the Depression*. Carle C. Zimmerman, 200 Emerson Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Four towns between five and ten thousands population studied by historical and statistical methods.

SOCIOLOGY AND SOCIAL WORK

(See also 3, 4, 22, 40, 47, 52, 55, 59, 60, 62, 64, 67, 69, 70, 71, 72-76, 100, 125, 151, 194)

199. *Old Age Assistance Legislation in Missouri*. Helen Adelaide Brown, 4307 Maryland St. Louis, Missouri.

200. *Personal and Familial Problems of Students in Social Work Training*. L. Guy Brown University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.

201. *Ann Arbor Boys' Guidance Project*. L. J. Carr, Marshall Levy, Mildred Valentine, 307 Haven Hall, Ann Arbor, Michigan. To measure effect of an intensive all-round social work program on the adjustments of maladjusted boys.

202. *Social Welfare Provisions of State Constitutions*. William E. Cole, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee.

203. *The Problem of Re-admission as Illustrated by Twenty Selected Case Studies in the Pediatrics Department of the St. Louis University Hospitals*. Doris Corcoran, St. Louis University Hospitals, 1325 South Grand Boulevard, St. Louis, Missouri.

204. *Discrimination after the Age of Forty-five in the Employment of Massachusetts Workers*. Lucile Eaves, Professor Emerita, Simmons College, Boston, Massachusetts.

205. **Employability of Relief Cases.** Edward T. Frankel, Director of Research & Statistics, T.E.R.A., 79 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y. New York State, excluding New York City, December 31, 1936.
206. **Cultural Patterning in Secret Societies.** Noel P. Gist and Carroll D. Clark, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.
207. **Socio-economic Background of Members of the Jewish Community Center.** Herman Jacobs, Jewish Community Center, 8904 Woodward Avenue, Detroit, Michigan.
208. **The Foster Home Care of Delinquent Children.** Marshall E. St. E. Jones, 229 Elm Street, Northampton, Mass.
209. **The Development of a Technique for Evaluating the Organization of Diocesan Catholic Social Institutions.** Weltha M. Kelley, A.M., St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.
210. **A Study of the Changing Structure, Functions and Relationships of an Institution.** Collerohe Krassovsky, 1100 S. Forest Avenue, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
211. **Pituitary Dwarfism as a Medical Social Problem.** Magdalene M. Lankauf, St. Louis University Hospitals, 1325 South Grand Boulevard, St. Louis, Missouri.
212. **Survey of Five Years of Outdoor Relief in Arkansas.** A. C. London, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas.
213. **Social and Economic Circumstances Affecting Medical Care in Upland Area in Arkansas.** W. H. Metzler, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Arkansas.
214. **The Relief Population of a Vermont Village.** Nancy Middleton, Bennington College, Bennington, Vermont. Case analysis of the people on relief with special reference to the effect of security legislation upon them. History, composition and characteristics of relief families.
215. **Some Forms of Volunteer Social Service Entered by College Graduate Women.** Priscilla Oakleaf, under supervision of Joseph K. Folsom, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.
216. **Medical Social Work as an Integrating Factor in Inter-Departmental Relationships in an Out-Patient Department.** Janet Pitman, St. Louis University Hospitals, 1325 South Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.
217. **An Evaluation of Social Factors in Fifty Cases of Children with Diarrhea.** Florence Rasser, St. Louis University Hospitals, 1325 S. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.
218. **The Extent to Which Relief Clients are Receiving Satisfactory Medical Service.** Ellery F. Reed, The Community Chest, 312 W. 9th Street, Cincinnati, Ohio.
219. **The Extent to Which Relief Costs Can be Reduced by Increase of Turnover of Cases through Intensive Supervision and Assistance of Less Experienced Case Workers.** *Idem.*
220. **Sisters of the Road: A study of female hoboes.** Dr. Ben L. Reitman, 32 N. State Street, Chicago, Illinois.
221. **The Ecology and Prevention of Venereal Disease.** *Idem.*
222. **Evaluation of Health and Sanitation Standards in Girl's Organized Summer Camps in the St. Louis Metropolitan Area.** Bernice Rossfeld, St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.
223. **Social Factors in Two Groups of Hospitalized Rachitic Children.** Evelyn Schloemer, St. Louis University Hospitals, 1325 S. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.
224. **An Analysis of the Personal Characteristics of the Dependent Population of St. Louis Registered with the Social Service Exchange during 1936.** Irving Weissman, Community Council of St. Louis, 613 Locust St., St. Louis, Missouri.
225. **An Analysis of Registrations with the St. Louis Social Service Exchange, by Census Tracts and Districts, 1936.** *Idem.*
226. **The Giving Possibilities in St. Louis.** *Idem.* Covers an analysis of contributions to the St. Louis United Charities Campaign for 1936 by selected professional, occupational and social groups, and by business establishments.
227. **A Survey of Campaign Procedures.** *Idem.* Study is based on questionnaires addressed to 2,500 campaign workers selected at random from a list of 7,500 names.
228. **Why Prospects do not Give to United Charities.** *Idem.*
229. **A Study of the Adequacy of Old-Age Pensions in St. Louis.** *Idem.* Study of 520 old people receiving old age assistance from the St. Louis Old Age Assistance Board.
230. **A Survey of Camping Needs in St. Louis Area.** *Idem.*
231. **The Effects of Unemployment on Psychic and Moral Conditions of Czechoslovak Unemployed People.** Dr. Bruno Zwicker, Sociological Department, Masaryk University, Brno, Czechoslovakia.

THE FAMILY

(See also 186, 189)

232. **Prediction of the Marital Adjustment of Engaged Couples.** E. W. Burgess and Paul Wolinsky, 1126 E. 59th Street, Chicago, Illinois.

233. **The Family and the Depression.** Ruth Shonle Cavan, 1608 Crosby St., Rockford, Illinois and Katherine H. Ranck, Institute for Juvenile Research, Chicago, Illinois.
234. **Background Factors in the Marital Adjustment of Rural Families.** Leonard S. Cottrell, Jr. and Edith Williams, Rural Social Organization, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.
235. **Reproductive Institutions and the Pressure for Populations.** Kingsley Davis, Clark University, Worcester, Mass. Modern Europe. An institutional interpretation of the declining birth rate, with special attention to measures designed to increase the rate and their probable future forms.
236. **The Family in Systems of Social Philosophy.** *Idem.* A study of the outstanding systems of social philosophy from the point of view of how they relate family institutions to the other aspects of the system.
237. **The Structural Analysis of Kinship: Prolegomena to the Sociology of Kinship.** *Idem.*
238. **The Sociology of Prostitution.** *Idem.*
239. **Malinowski's Contributions to the Theory of Familial Institutions.** *Idem.*
240. **Study of the Total Situation of Children Troublesome in School.** Sister Mary Henry Gibbs, Rosary College, River Forest, Illinois.
241. **The Chinese Family in America.** Norman S. Hayner, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.
242. **The Value of Social Case Work Treatment in Desertion and Non-Support Cases.** (Comparative Study of Eight hundred Cases Active during 1934 and 1935 in the Courts of St. Louis.) Bernadine Anna Held, St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.
243. **Preparation for Marriage: Study of students' needs with proposed syllabus.** Norman E. Himes, Colgate University, Hamilton, New York.
244. **The Paranoid Personality as a Spouse.** Roswell H. Johnson, 607 S. Hill Street, Los Angeles, Calif.
245. **Ordinal Position in Relation to Temperamental Trend, Occupational Choice, and Familial Adjustment.** Maurice H. Krout, 4316 Lexington St., Chicago, Illinois.
246. **Characteristics of the Secondary Family in Doubled-up Families.** Richard O. Lang, 3412 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, Virginia.
247. **An Analysis of Marriage Licenses Issued in Montgomery County, Ala., 1935-36.** W. L. Leap, Huntingdon College, Montgomery, Alabama.
248. **A Study of a Group of Jewish Parents about Ten Years Out of College with a View to Determining Attitudes on Family Relationships.** Ruth Mallay, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.
249. **Ecological Changes in Family Disintegration in Chicago.** Ernest R. Mowrer, Department of Sociology, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois.
250. **Marriage and Divorce in the United States.** *Idem.*
251. **Marital Adjustment and the Child.** Harriet R. Mowrer, 2214 Sherman Avenue, Evanston, Illinois.
252. **The Role of Therapy in Family Research.** *Idem.*
253. **Attitudes of College Students toward Marriage and Family Life, 1929 and 1936.** Wayne C. Neely, Hood College, Frederick, Maryland.
254. **A Study of the Attitudes of College Senior Women towards the Relation between Homemaking and Outside Vocation.** Nancy Phillips, under supervision of Joseph K. Folsom, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York.
255. **The Step-Child.** William C. Smith, William Jewell College, Liberty, Missouri.
256. **A Study of Marital Conflicts and Their Treatment by a Private Family Agency.** Frances Taylor, McMillan Hall, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri.
257. **Rural Family on Relief and Rehabilitation.** Carle C. Zimmerman and N. L. Whetten, 200 Emerson Hall, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

SOCIOLOGY OF RELIGION

258. **Religious Attitudes of College Students.** L. V. Ballard, Beloit College, Beloit, Wisconsin.
259. **The Religious Content in Revolutionary Social Change.** Edward S. Boyer, James Millikin University, Decatur, Illinois.
260. **A Sociological Analysis of the Diffusion of Christianity.** Paul F. Cressey, Wheaton College, Norton, Massachusetts.
261. **A Study of Ritual in the Negro Churches of Chicago.** Vattel E. Daniel, Wiley College, Marshall, Texas.
262. **The Problems of Organized Religion in Medium-Sized Cities.** Murray H. Leiffer, 721 Foster Street, Evanston, Illinois.

263. A Study of the Protestant Church in the Apartment House Areas with Special Reference to Chicago. Elmer L. Setterlund, Hastings College, Hastings, Nebraska.
 264. Processes of Change in a Religious Sect. Forrest L. Weller, 3435 Van Buren Street, Chicago, Illinois.
 265. Religious Life of the Chicago Metropolitan Region. *Idem*.
 266. Religious Life of Urban Communities. *Idem*.

CRIMINOLOGY

(See also 52, 53, 54, 120)

- (For a more complete record see *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, September-October 1936; *Criminological Research Bulletin* No. 6)
 267. A Psychoneurotic Reaction of Delinquent Boys and Girls. Clairette P. Armstrong, Ph.D., 51 East 90th Street, New York, N. Y. A comparison of 122 runaway girls arraigned in the New York City Children's Court in 1932-1933 with 660 runaway boys previously investigated is made as to fundamental factors in their total situation.
 268. Time-Spaced Reporting of a "Crime" Witnessed by College Girls. Lee M. Brooks, Chapel Hill, North Carolina and Katherine Vickery, Montevallo, Alabama.
 269. Social Backgrounds of Crime. Charles J. Bushnell, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio.
 270. Juvenile Probation and Parole in 6 Michigan Counties. L. J. Carr, 307 Haven Hall, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
 271. The Juvenile Maladjustments of Young Urban Criminals. L. J. Carr and John Graves, 307 Haven Hall, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
 272. Juvenile Delinquency in 8 Michigan Industrial Counties. L. J. Carr, Paul Wiers, and James E. Stermer.
 273. The Prison Community. Donald Clemmer, 2 Woodruff Road, Joliet, Illinois.
 274. A Rehabilitation Quotient for Jail Prisoners. Jerome Davis, 409 Prospect Street, New Haven, Connecticut. All jail prisoners sentenced for 30 days or more in Connecticut. Predictability table checked to see reliability after three years.
 275. Juvenile Delinquency in Leading Cities of the Pacific Northwest. Norman S. Hayner, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.
 276. The Backgrounds of 472 Inmates of the Wisconsin State Prison Compared with the Backgrounds of their brothers. J. L. Gillin, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.
 277. Success and Failure of Probation in the State of Wisconsin. *Idem*.
 278. Studies of the Leisure Time Problem of the State School for Boys at St. Charles, Illinois and the State School for Girls at Geneva, Illinois. Eugene T. Lies, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y.
 278. Development of the Ecological Map Technique in the Study of Criminology and other Social Sciences during the Early Decades of the Nineteenth Century in Europe. Alfred R. Lindesmith, Department of Sociology, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.
 279. Modus Operandi of Sex Offenses Against Children. Stuart Lottier, 330 Municipal Court Building, Detroit, Michigan.
 280. Analytical Study of the Effectiveness of Clinical Contacts in the Treatment of Delinquency Trends in the Community of St. Louis. Dorothy Hardeman McKelfresh, St. Louis University School of Social Service, 221 N. Grand Blvd., St. Louis, Missouri.
 281. The Nature of Juvenile Delinquency in a Backwoods County. Walter C. Reckless, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee.
 282. Cultural Factors in Negro Crime. Jess Spierer, Western State Penitentiary, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
 283. Methods of Social Treatment of the Adult Probationer. Pauline V. Young, The University of Southern California, Los Angeles, California.

POLITICAL SOCIOLOGY

(See also 5, 79, 101, 227)

284. The Problem of National "Recovery" as Viewed through the Conditions of Social Waste in a Typical American City—Toledo. Charles J. Bushnell, Chairman, Department of Sociology, University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio.
 285. Prison Labor Legislation and Administration in New York State. Margaret Callaghan, St. Joseph College, West Hartford, Connecticut.
 286. Schismatic Differentiation as a Factor in Culture Change. Noel P. Gist, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.
 287. Sociology of Law. Jerome Hall, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
 288. Aid to Dependent Children in Missouri with Special Reference to the Desirability of

Qualifying for Federal Aid under the Social Security Act. Virginia M. Hammerstein, 1524a Warren Street, St. Louis, Missouri.

289. A Comparative Study: types of leaders, especially the difference between the nature of a democratic leadership when compared with a dictatorial leadership; how special social situations determine the success or the failure in political leadership. Dr. Antonin Obrdlik, Brno—Neumannova 32, Czechoslovakia.

290. Objective Bases of Social Stratification in the United States. Elbridge Sibley, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine.

291. Philosophy of Law. Dr. J. J. von Schmid, Leiden University, Rijn-en Schiekade 5, Leiden, Holland.

292. A Functional Study of Public Service Positions in State and Local Government. Chase Going Woodhouse, Institute of Women's Professional Relations, Connecticut College, New London, Connecticut.

LATE RETURNS

293. Contemporary Analysis of Resettlement Communities. E. L. Kirkpatrick, Department of Rural Sociology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

294. Analysis of Standard Farm Plan Rural Rehabilitation Cases in Resettlement Region II. *Idem*.

295. Analyses of Human and Physical Resources of the Resettlement Region of Michigan, Wisconsin and Minnesota. *Idem*.

296. A Social Study of a Group of Fifty Unemployed Adolescents Known to the Family Society of Philadelphia. Myra Daniel, 310 Belt Avenue, St. Louis, Missouri.

297. Youth on Relief. Bruce L. Melvin, Rural Research Unit. W.P.A., Washington, D. C.

298. Situation and Prospects of Rural Youth. *Idem*.

299. Youth in Agricultural Villages. *Idem*.

EDITORIAL NOTES

The Editor hails with enthusiasm the appointment by President Faris of a Membership Committee, with Professor Wilson Gee of the University of Virginia as Chairman. This is an important step, deserving the active co-operation of all members. Scientific and learned societies are absolutely essential for the progressive development of their respective disciplines. At the same time, they do not ordinarily give their members an exact and full market-value equivalent of their dues. Most of our learned societies would disappear if they were supported solely on a strictly utilitarian basis of an immediate personal sort. At the same time and as a rule, the larger the membership the more extensive the services per member. Our present membership of around one thousand is only two-thirds as large as it once was. With 250 additional members the finances and services of the Society can be placed on an improved basis. These 250 and even more must be lurking about in the sociological highways and byways profiting by the greater loyalty and enthusiasm of their colleagues. It is certainly not too much to ask of all those who make their living as professional sociologists that they become full members of the guild by supporting the Society that constitutes the most essential expression of their professional interests.

We wish to call attention of our members and other readers to our special issue on Marriage and the Family to appear in October. The prospectus of the October issue is printed on one of the front advertising pages. The topics and contributors were chosen in consultation with Professor Joseph Folsom, whose expert knowledge of the field was indispensable, both for the general plan and for numerous details.

This special issue will contain nearly two hundred pages of articles. The Editor can certify that all of these articles are timely and interesting. This number should be very useful for supplementary reading, not only in courses on the family, but in introductory and other courses dealing with the matters discussed. Since many instructors will wish their students to have copies, Managing Editor Phelps is making special prices for quantity orders. We solicit your co-operation in the promotion of the October issue.

The resignation of Professor Howard Becker to accept a professorship at Wisconsin will not, for the time being, alter his position as Review Editor for the *Review*. He has rendered conscientious and energetic service in that capacity, and, as our readers will testify, has made our "Book Reviews" department second to none.

Persons and Positions

B.A. University of Wisconsin; M.A. University of Chicago; B.A.S. George Williams College. Special work in social service administration, community organization and vocational guidance. Foreign travel and study. Experience as social work executive, director of research, supervisor of student employment, and several years teaching of sociology and allied subjects. Publications in the field of personality, children, and group discussions. Desires college position summer or fall of 1937.

M.A. in Sociology; half requirements met for Ph.D. Seven years university teaching. Publications in old-age insecurity. Former director Community House, Children's Camp, and Worker's Education Project. Full member of Am. Assn. Social Workers. Five years as consultant of welfare problems with state and Federal officials. Married; two children. European travel and experience as public speaker and writer. Interested in position combining teaching, research and public relations in progressive environment for summer or fall of 1937.

A.B. University of Western Ontario; M.A. Drew University, Madison, N. J.; graduate study at Columbia and New York Universities; work for Ph.D. at latter nearly completed; now completing third year as instructor in sociology at large eastern university; 28; married, no children; Protestant; Canadian.

M.A. Sociology, University of Pittsburgh; woman, single; minors, social work, political science, psychology; undergraduate major, zoology.

M.A. in sociology, University of Chicago, 1926; expect Ph.D. in August, 1937. Seven years experience teaching sociology and other social sciences in colleges and universities. Special interests: the family, social psychology, introductory sociology, criminology. Age 40; married. Desires permanent college position in sociology.

Ph.D., minor in Economics, Columbia; 5 years teaching the social sciences in college; competent in these and statistics, human geography, orientation and teaching history; age 47 years; two books and numerous articles published; years of research work; languages; European travel; P.B.K.

Ph.D. Chicago, 1934; married, one child; four years experience teaching sociology, economics, anthropology and social science survey courses; extensive rural and urban field work; special interests, primitive society and social origins.

M.A. in sociology, Pittsburgh, and candidate for Ph.D.; six years experience high-school teaching; married, one child; seeks college position in sociology.

CURRENT ITEMS

American Association for the Advancement of Science. At the Denver meeting of the Association, June 21-26, Section K (Social and Economic Sciences) secured the participation of the American Sociological Society, the Sociological Research Association, Pi Gamma Mu, the Econometric Society, and the American Statistical Association. The Sociological Research Association sponsored two sessions, an evening lecture and a luncheon meeting. The former was under the chairmanship of Stuart A. Rice, Vice-President for Section K and Chairman of the Central Statistical Board. Its principal speaker was Dr. Carl Snyder, who spoke on "New Foundations for an Economic Science." The luncheon meeting was devoted to "Measuring Public Opinion," with a paper by Mr. George Gallup of the American Institute of Public Opinion on "Recent Trends in Public Opinion," the discussion of which was led by Louis H. Bean of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Harold F. Gosnell, University of Chicago, and Claude Robinson, author of "Straw Votes."

American Eugenics Society, California Division. Dr. Paul Popenoe, a pioneer and leader in the California Division, has resigned from the Human Betterment Foundation of Pasadena, of which he was secretary from its incorporation. Hereafter he will serve as General Director of the Los Angeles Institute of Family Relations.

American Sociological Society. The list of active chapters, with addresses of their secretaries, is as follows: No. 1, University of Utah Sociological Society, Union Building, Salt Lake City, Utah. No. 2, The Sociology Club of the University of Cincinnati, University of Cincinnati. No. 4, District of Columbia Sociological Society, 2133 G Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. No. 5, The Society for Social Research of the University of Chicago. No. 6, The Southern Sociological Society, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N.C. No. 7, Eastern Sociological Society, Wheaton College, Norton, Mass. No. 8, Mid-West Sociological Society, Beloit College, Beloit, Wis.

No. 3 was the Johnson C. Smith Sociological Society which failed to renew membership in 1936.

New Members. J. Howell Atwood, 704 North Cherry Street, Galesburg, Ill. O. E. Baker, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C. Pierre Boucher, The Montreal Metropolitan Commission, 10 St. James Street west, Montreal, Canada. H. H. Cain, 463 West Coulter Street, Germantown, Pa.; W. C. Capel, North Jefferson Street, Milledgeville, Ga.; William C. Cobb, Houghton Mifflin Company, 386 Fourth Avenue, New York City; Paul G. Cressey, 132 McCosh Road, Upper Montclair, N.J.; August Ditmars, 89-47 115th Street, Richmond Hill, Long Island, N.Y.; Dan W. Dodson, Room 41 Press Building, New York University, New York City; Edward Y. Hartshorne, 3 Phillips Place, Cambridge, Mass.; William G. Hyde, 1828 Berdan Avenue, Toledo, Ohio; Samuel Haig Jameson, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.; O. W. Juneke, 2361 East 70th Street, Chicago, Ill.; Margaret Mildred Lam, 1439 Keeaumoku Street, Honolulu, T.H.; F. A. McKenzie, Juniata College, Huntingdon, Pa.; Robert L. McNamara, 927-7th Street, Brookings, S.Dak.; Professor Fritz Karl Mann, 4405 Stanford Street, Chevy Chase, Md.; Robert Ray Martin, Department of Sociology, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.; Frederick B. Parker, St. Lawrence University, Canton, N.Y.; Hortense Powdermaker, 333 Cedar Street, New Haven, Conn.; Edwin

Powers, Box 666, Hanover, N.H.; Mary Gladys Smithers, Luray, Va.; Raymond B. Stevens, 320 Irvine Place, Elmira, N.Y.; Nathan Sweedler, 194 Crown Street, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Walter A. Terpenning, 34 Snoden Avenue, Schenectady, N.Y.; N. S. Timasheff, 5 Phillips Place, Cambridge, Mass.; Johan J. von Schmid, Rijn-en Schiekade 5, Leiden, Holland; G. A. Warfield, 2131 South Columbine Street, Denver, Colo.

District of Columbia Chapter. This Chapter of the A.S.S. carried through the following program during the past winter, with the attendance indicated. Dr Frederick F. Stephan is Secretary.

September 15, 1936: Frank Bane, Executive Director of the Social Security Board: "The Need for and Philosophy of the Present Social Security Legislation," 58. October 20, 1936: Milton J. Patterson, Executive Secretary, Maryland Board of State Aid and Charities: "The Federal-State Program of Social Security from a State Point of View," 35. November 18, 1936: Ewan Clague, Assistant Director of Research and Statistics, Social Security Board: "Sociological Implications of Social Security," 57. December 15, 1936: Stuart A. Rice, Chairman of the Central Statistical Board: "The Problem of Planning and Co-ordinating Government Statistics," 50. January 19, 1937: J. L. Moreno, Superintendent, Beacon Hill Hospital, Beacon Hill, New York: "Contributions of Sociometry to the Organization of New Settlements with Special Reference to Race Psychology," 40. February 16, 1937: Chaplain A. C. Oliver, Jr., United States Army Medical Center, Washington, D.C.: "Education in the Civilian Conservation Corps," 28. March 18, 1937: Edward C. Lindeman, New School of Social Research: "The Interrelation of Biological and Sociological Phenomena," 81. April 20, 1937: C. C. Taylor, Bureau of Agricultural Economics: "Sociology on the Spot," 71. May 18, 1937: Halbert L. Dunn, Federal Bureau of Vital Statistics: "Some Implications of Statistics for Sociologists," 50.

Harvard University. Allen and Unwin have announced the publication of E. Y. Hartshorne's *The German Universities and National Socialism*. An American edition, containing a Bibliography, is being brought out by the Harvard University Press.

The Human Betterment Foundation of Pasadena has completed another tabulation of official sterilizations in the United States up to January 1937. The total number is 25,407, of whom forty percent were males and sixty percent females. Nearly one half of this total were performed in California. The national total during 1936 was 2,241. The report notes the enactment of a sterilization law in Georgia and the veto by the governor of a sterilization bill passed by the New Mexico legislature.

International Review for Social History. The first volume of this *Review*, 1936, comprising 416 pages (8 guilders, bound in buckram 10 guilders), edited by the International Institute for Social History, Amsterdam, has made its appearance. In addition, there has appeared the *Bulletin* of the Institute, Volume I, Part 1, 1937, 80 pages (price per volume of about 200 pages, 1.60 guilders). The articles, communications, book reviews and other materials are published in German, English or French, with summaries in the other two languages. The publisher is E. J. Brill, Leiden.

Michigan State College. Dr. Noel P. Gist of the University of Kansas is teaching courses in "Principles" and "Urban Sociology" in the Summer Session. Mr. Harold Gibbard, who is just completing work for his Ph.D. at the University of Michigan, has been appointed Research Assistant in the Department in connection with the Experiment Station program. Two members of the department are giving full time to research and a third devotes six months of the year to the program.

Mid-western Conference on Rural Population Research. A two-day conference

was held at Columbia, Missouri, under the auspices of the College of Agriculture of the University of Missouri, co-operating with the Division of Farm Population and Rural Life, Bureau of Agricultural Economics of the United States Department of Agriculture, on April 23 and 24. Topics particularly considered were population composition, rural population migration, and regional population research. The Division of Farm Population and Rural Life was represented by Dr. C. C. Taylor, Dr. B. Youngblood, Dr. Conrad Taeuber and Dr. O. E. Baker. There was a total attendance of fifty, including representatives of Experiment Stations of the mid-western states. Dr. C. E. Lively of Ohio State University, Chairman of the Committee on Research Policy, presented a report for that Committee. The Proceedings of the Conference are being prepared for publication. The Secretary was Prof. E. L. Morgan, Department of Rural Sociology, 231 Mumford Hall, Columbia, Missouri.

The Ohio Sociologist. Attention is called to the May 1937 issue of this bulletin of the Ohio Sociological Society. It contains valuable abstracts of a dozen papers presented at the April sessions of that Society. Professor S. C. Newman, Ohio State University, is the Editor.

Pennsylvania State College. Dr. Kingsley Davis, at Clark University during the past year, has accepted appointment to succeed Dr. Willard Waller, who goes to Barnard College.

Prize Essay Contests. In a previous issue we called attention to the prize of \$1000 offered by the Conference of Jewish Relations for the best essay on "The Occupation Distribution of Jews in the United States." Contest closes April 30, 1938. For particular address Prof. Maurice R. Cohen, 854 West 181st Street, New York, N.Y.

The Consumers Credit Institute of America announces five prizes from \$100 to \$1000 for manuscripts of book length on consumers' credit. The essays must be critical and constructive, and may deal with industrial banks, credit unions, personal finance companies, installment systems, or other topics from the legal, industrial, social or ethical fields. Contest closes October 1, 1938. The judges will be Charles O. Hardy, Ernest M. Patterson, and Raymond Rodgers. For further details write the Secretary of the Consumers Credit Institute, 233 Broadway, New York, N.Y.

Smith College. Dr. Howard Becker has resigned his associate professorship to accept appointment to a full professorship in sociology at the University of Wisconsin. Dr. Neal De Nood, (Ph.D. Harvard, 1937) has been appointed to the vacancy. Miss Dorothy Fosdick has been appointed to the instructorship held by Frances Becker.

Social Science Research Council. The Council has announced the approval of eighty-three grants, totalling more than \$100,000. These include thirteen post-doctoral research training fellowships carrying a basic stipend of \$1800 or \$2500; twenty pre-doctoral field fellowships carrying a basic stipend of \$1800 plus travel allowance; and fifty grants-in-aid, which ordinarily do not exceed \$1000.

Among the post-doctoral fellowships of special interest to sociologists were: Harold E. Driver, Research Fellow, Department of Anthropology, University of California, for study of kinship, social institutions, and language in western North America; Harry Schuyler Foster, Assistant Professor of Political Science, Ohio State University, for study in Great Britain of the news, the public, and pressure groups in the determination of recent British foreign policy; Lee S. Greene, TVA and the University of Tennessee, for study in Great Britain and Germany of research techniques used in regional planning; Samuel P. Hayes, Jr., Instructor in Psychology, Mt. Holyoke College, for study in the United States of the psychology of politico-economic movements; and Richard O. Lang, Central Statistical Board, Washington, D.C., for study in Great Britain, Germany and Czechoslovakia

of the methods employed in the planning, collection, tabulation and presentation of population census data and the research undertaken to measure their validity and accuracy.

Among the pre-doctoral field fellows were: William Russell Bascom, Anthropology, Northwestern University, for study in Nigeria of the Yoruba pointed toward the identification of cultural traits which have been retained by New World Negroes; Irvin L. Child, Psychology, Yale University, for study at the Institute of Human Relations, Yale University, of the relation of psychological conflict to cultural conflict in American-born native children of Italian immigrants; Ralph Henry Danhof, Sociology, University of Michigan, for study in Boulder City and The Netherlands of the initiation, development and maintenance of institutions by a newly established community, with special reference to the function of social guidance in this process of growth; and George Kuznets, Psychology, University of California, for study of the techniques of isolation of primary traits.

Among grant-in-aid appointees were: Floyd H. Allport, Professor of Social and Political Psychology, Syracuse University, for a study of the behaviors involved in modern culture and institutions; George Devereux, University of California, for a study of Sedang Ethnology; Stanley Dalton Dodge, Associate Professor of Geography, University of Michigan, for a study of the areal limits and the causes and degree of population decline in New England; Joy Paul Guilford, Professor of Psychology, University of Nebraska, for a study of some primary traits of personality by means of factor-analysis methods; Everett C. and Helen MacGill Hughes, McGill University, for a study of the impact of industrial and urban life upon French Canadians and their culture; Charles P. Loomis, Senior Agricultural Economist, U. S. Department of Agriculture, for a translation of the 1935 edition of Ferdinand Tönnies' *Gemeinschaft und Gesellschaft* with an interpretation and introduction by the translators; Joseph Mayer, Consultant in Sociology, Library of Congress, for a study of Scientific Method and Economic Thought in relation to modern science, institutional history, psychology and sociology; and Walter F. Willcox, Professor of Economics, Cornell University for Essays in American Demography.

University of Texas. Prof. Walter C. Reckless of Vanderbilt University is giving courses in sociology during the summer session. He reports a magnificent campus and a cool Gulf breeze. Believe it or not!

University of Washington. In recognition of the books he has written Professor Jesse F. Steiner, chairman of the department of sociology, was granted the honorary degree of LL.D. by Heidelberg College, Tiffin, Ohio. Professor Steiner is teaching at Stanford University during the summer.

Out of a faculty of 450, Professor Howard B. Woolston was chosen in a recent vote of the students as their most popular professor.

Professor Charles E. Gehlke of Western Reserve University is teaching here during the summer quarter.

Calvin F. Schmid, assistant professor of sociology at the University of Minnesota, has been appointed associate professor. This increases the permanent staff of the department to seven. Since Norman S. Hayner has been promoted from associate professor to professor the department now has three full professors.

William Jewell College. Prof. William C. Smith has resigned as head of the Department of Sociology to accept a professorship of sociology in Linfield College, McMinnville, Oregon. He is teaching this summer as visiting professor of sociology at the University of Kansas. Edwards Brothers, Ann Arbor, Michigan, announce the publication of a monograph, "Americans in Process: A Study of Our Citizens

of Oriental Ancestry," by Professor Smith. This is a study of the American-born children of Oriental parentage in Hawaii and on the Pacific Coast.

Yale University. Readers of the *Review* will be interested to know, if not already informed, that in addition to the report by the American Association of University Professors an even more extensive report, "The Jerome Davis Case," has been published by the American Federation of Teachers, an affiliate of the American Federation of Labor, 506 S. Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Illinois. A much shorter report was released on June 8 by the Tenure Committee of the National Education Association.

LATE ITEM

American University. Professor Delos O. Kinsman has just published through the Thomas Y. Crowell Company *Our Economic World*. Professor Kinsman, who is the author also of *Man in the Making*, is spending the summer studying recent economic reforms in the Scandinavian countries.

Periodical Literature

BRITISH JOURNALS

KINGSLEY DAVIS

Pennsylvania State College

- British Journal of Psychology*, (4, April 1937).—O. A. Oeser: Methods and Assumptions of Field Work in Social Psychology, 343-363.
- Economic History*, (12, Feb. 1937).—G. N. Clark: Social and Economic Aspects of Science in the Age of Newton, 362-379.—N. E. Himes: Benjamin Franklin on Population, 388-398.
- Economic History Review*, (2, May 1937).—R. Pares: The Economic Factors in the History of the Empire, 119-144.—P. Elman: The Economic Causes of the Expulsion of the Jews in 1290, 145-154.—H. St. L. B. Moss: The Economic Consequences of the Barbarian Invasions, 209-216.—D. O. Wagner: The Common Law and Free Enterprise: an Early Case of Monopoly, 217-220.
- Economic Journal*, (186, June 1937).—A. P. Lerner: Statics and Dynamics in Socialist Economics, 253-270.—G. C. Allen: The Concentration of Economic Control in Japan, 271-286.—W. B. Reddaway: Special Obstacles to Full Employment in a Wealthy Community.
- Quarterly Review*, (532, April 1937).—A. Macphail: Family and Society, 214-224.
- Round Table*, (106, March 1937).—The Birth Rate and the Empire, 308-318. (107, June 1937).—The King and His Peoples, 467-484.—Czechoslovakia and Its Minorities, 519-532.
- Science and Society*, (3, June-Sept. 1937).—Topic of this number: Our Changing Attitudes to Sex and Fecundity.—C. V. Drysdale: The Scientific Basis of Birth Control, 86-100.—A. Meusel: The Social Position of Woman in the National Socialist State, 101-109.—R. O. Brigham: Maternal Health and Tobacco, 110-116.—J. Rumney: Sexual Topography of the World, 117-121.—D. W. Harding: The Conscious Choice of Parenthood, 122-130.—Mrs. S. Mudd: Young People and Marriage, 131-140.—B. Low: Some Considerations on Sex-Education in the School, 141-147.—J. Chance: The Scientific Attitude and Some Sexual Questions, 148-155.
- Sociological Review*, (2, April 1937).—E. Barker: Maitland as a Sociologist, 121-135.—L. von Wiese: The Social, Spiritual, and Cultural Elements of the Interhuman Life, 136-153.—C. Bouglé: Social Differentiation and Assimilation, 154-174.—P. Ford: Means Tests and Responsibility for Needy Relatives, 175-189.—R. S. Walshaw: The Migration of British Citizens Between the United Kingdom and Europe: 190-197.

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Middletown in Transition. By ROBERT S. LYND and HELEN MERRELL LYND. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1937. Pp. xviii+604. \$5.00.

"Just what has happened to us during the depression?" has been given a long-awaited answer by the Lynds in *Middletown in Transition*. Fortunately the Lynds took time off from a study of the effects of the depression on a small selected group of families for the present study of that more significant group in which our lives are lived, the community.

"Just what happened to Middletown during the depression?" Middletown had to shift its central concern from "How fast can we make more money?" to "Can we manage to live?" With one-quarter of its population on relief it had to raise the question as to its belief that everyone could and should support himself and had to tax itself for the support of one out of every four families for an indefinite period. It had to face the change from local autonomy to an increasing interference by outside governmental agencies and to question its belief that it was just one big co-operating family when the working class began to sense its position under outside sponsorship. Enforced leisure created a need for a change in its previous devotion to the work ideal. It faced the question of its faith in education as the key to the future welfare of its children when it discovered so many of them unemployed. An increasing questioning on the part of these children of the values which it had been accustomed to pass along to them disturbed it. Finally, it had to live in a present of pressing demands rather than at a future which all signs promised to be golden.

The authors found that Middletown had learned but little from the depression. In fact, it was carrying on with the values by which it had lived in 1925. No new values had arisen as a rallying point for the community. Leadership had not shifted but was more concentrated than in 1925. The different rates of change in its institutions as found in their

earlier study had not changed. Economic changes were setting the pace as in the previous study while governmental and religious institutions remained most resistant to change. The greatest changes took place in the institutions caring for the unable but Middletown looked upon them as temporary.

However, Middletown has been injected with a new sense of the complexity of what was formerly held to be a simple world. At first it tried to understand these conflicts but found the job too big for it and now relies on its old belief "in the ultimates in life being somewhat divinely in hand." More concrete expressions of change are to be found in the defense of existing values by its business class and in the confused new value as to the possible role of government in its interests by its working class.

The gap between symbol and practice in the concerns of living widens. "On the surface then Middletown is meeting such present crises and situations as it cannot escape by attempting to revert to old formulae; we must always believe that things are good and that they will be better and we must stress the hopeful rather than the pessimistic aspect." The depression and poverty were exceptional to a normally good state of affairs, "a bad bump in the road." Anything that is wrong is due to the fault of some individual or human nature and not to the groups' institutional structure. Middletown's conflict will be solved through Christian charity, faith, service, work, common sense, optimism and character. With its faith in the perfection of its institutions any attempt to change them is looked upon as "an assault upon the one source of strength and progress within the nation, namely, the personal drive within the individual to accumulate wealth and better himself."

However, "down here within our vests we're scared to death," heard when members of both classes were talked with unofficially, showed the conflict. A 59 percent vote for Roosevelt in the last election probably meant the sense of this conflict and more or less conscious belief that in this direction security lay.

On paper, Middletown looks askance at both communism and fascism. In fact, however, Middletown's business men want to resume their money-making activities more than they wish to preserve political democracy. Strong men are successes in their business world and they appreciate them. A strong man in politics would be looked up to not only by them but by the working class as well in the release of tensions, if the values are couched in the fetish terms of Americanism and prosperity.

More likely, Middletown's adjustment will be one of "inching along," following its customary "middle-of-the road course." With an increase in the consciousness of the working class and more adequate labor organization, compromises to the left will be made and in time the new pattern will be looked upon as the "American way." Drastic changes in national policy or changes induced by larger urban or industrial aggregates might bring about more radical adjustments.

Middletown in Transition is a normal development of the previous study, *Middletown*. All concerns of living are considered in both but "Caring for

the Unable," the "Machinery of Government" and "Getting Information" receives more attention in the later study. A chapter on "The X Family: A Pattern of Business Class Control" and an eighty-five page one on "The Middletown Spirit" have been added in the second volume. *Middletown in Transition* excels *Middletown* because of the authors' previous knowledge of the community and a well-organized long point of view for selecting the material included. It is more dynamic because of the increasing conflict between symbols and practices felt by its readers in their everyday life. The authors have been able to co-ordinate their data and interpretations into a whole, showing remarkable insight into cultural conflicts and adjustments. The footnotes cannot be neglected.

DONALD C. MARSH

Wayne University

Who Shall Survive? A New Approach to the Problem of Human Interrelations.

By J. L. MORENO. Washington, D. C.: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Co., 1934. Pp. xvi + 440. \$4.00.

The subtitle is an appropriate brief description of the contents of this volume, and herein lies its importance to sociologists. Why the main title was hung on remains a mystery after a careful study of the book. While it is unfortunate from the point of view of circulation that so misleading a title should have been attached, it does not detract from the solid merits of the volume, which are notable. For Dr. Moreno has definitely taken the lead in objectifying certain basic social processes which have always been recognized as fundamental to sociology.

The greater part of the volume is devoted to an analysis of the social currents—attractions and repulsions—found operating in a closed community (State Training School for Girls, Hudson, N. Y.) of about six hundred population, living in sixteen cottages, each with a housemother. Each girl was asked to choose in order of desirability the members of the community with whom she would like to occupy the same house. The choices were confidential and it was understood that the selections would as far as possible be made the basis of the assignment of living quarters. Analysis of the resulting data revealed an intricate pattern of mutual and one-sided attractions and repulsions, mutual pairs, triads, chains, and other configurations of social currents which taken in their entirety constitute what the author calls the psychological geography of the community.

A considerable portion of the volume is devoted to diagrammatic representation of the configurations and their intensive analysis, both in terms of the personalities involved and in terms of the problems of behavior and control which these studies illuminate. These and much other data reported in the book may in themselves seem simple enough. But Dr. Moreno's analysis, and the theoretical framework into which the data are fitted, are an ingenious and fascinating example of what a trained scientist can do when he turns his attention to sociological problems. To be sure, he draws on the other sciences for both terminology and theoretical suggestions. But

as in the case of Comte, Ward, and others, this only adds strength and coherence to his system. Since some of these past attempts have become obsolete as the whole field of science has advanced, sociologists have frequently drawn the fallacious conclusion that they must avoid also the terminology and methods of other *contemporary* sciences on the ground that this would be resorting to "analogies" which are supposed to be invalid *per se*. As a result, the training of sociologists in the contents, tools, and methods of science has been sadly neglected in favor of literary, historical, and philosophic excursions which turn out to be largely irrelevant.

Space forbids a more detailed and critical account of the enormous detail and the theoretical system advanced in this volume. Perhaps it can best be summarized by saying that here are concrete data to illustrate Wiese's analysis of the smaller group-patterns. (See Wiese-Becker, *Systematic Sociology*, Chs. 32, 39-41.) Not all of it is completely convincing as far as the present, perhaps inadequate, presentation of admittedly subtle data are concerned. For example, I should want a very much fuller account of the "spontaneity" testing and training, to which considerable space is devoted, before I could accept all of the author's claims for this technique. Also, I think the author assumes too readily the *priority* of the "emotional continuum of relations [which] lies below all the patterns of community life, families, clubs, labor, political or religious units" (p. 339). Actually these basic currents are themselves the results of interaction with the "upper structures" which are admittedly so often badly adapted to the underlying continuum. With this reservation, one must, however, welcome his illuminating analysis of and emphasis upon the importance of these underlying patterns. Less pardonable are the large number of minor infelicities which mar, although they do not greatly reduce, the value of this important work. There is, in the first place, a considerable number of errors and ambiguities, in addition to those listed in the Errata on the last page. The text and the diagrams do not agree in several cases (*e.g.*, p. 35). The percentages referred to in Fig. 4, p. 47, are not apparent from the charts. On p. 250 the author refers to the "accompanying triangle" but the triangle does not accompany or occur anywhere within 35 pages, if at all. There is a line or more omitted on p. 432. Failure to number numerous figures to correspond to text references is a great irritation to the reader (*e.g.*, pp. 104-106, 115, 116). On p. 241 there is reference to the "combination" of different criteria of choice, but I am unable to find any explanation of how this combination was effected. Also, it is not explained how individual attitudes were combined or averaged to get the relationship between cottages shown on p. 238. Added to these shortcomings are a number of atrocious examples of bad English (*e.g.*, pp. 146, 185, 227) which mar an otherwise lucid style. The difficulty of proofreading so intricate a copy as this book presents must be recognized in partial extenuation of the defects noted, but they are none the less regrettable in a work otherwise so competent.

The practical and theoretical implications of a more objective charting of the subtler social networks that underlie the more obvious and superficial community structures will be readily apparent. These networks stand in

the same relation to readily observable overt social behavior as the atomic structure of matter stands in relation to the more obvious behavior of the physical universe. The formulation of the laws governing the "inner essence" of the latter has increased enormously man's powers of adaptation to this universe. Sociologists, too, have always striven to formulate the "inner essence" of society. The volume under review makes powerful suggestions as to the direction in which a solution probably lies and the technique by which it may be approached. As such it must be regarded as one of the more important of contemporary contributions to sociological literature.

GEORGE A. LUNDBERG

Bennington College

The Nature of Human Nature and Other Essays in Social Psychology. By ELLSWORTH FARIS. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937. Pp. xii+370. \$3.50.

The book consists of an introduction and thirty-one collected essays arranged under the captions: I. Group and Person, eight; II. Conduct and Attitudes, seven; III. Sociology and Education, six; IV. Sociology and Ethnology, five; and V. The Sociology of Racial Conflict, five. (It is unfortunate that the date and place of original publication are not given as well as the changes from the original text.)

The introduction proposes a set of postulates which I presume would loom large in that systematic social psychology which many people have long been hoping Professor Faris will sometime write. These postulates assume the reality, priority, inertia, and naturalness of culture; acting precedes thinking; reason and imagination are phases of behavior which attempt to remove the impediments to action; human beings are the only animals which have selves; personality is relative to groups; personality consists of tendencies to modes of action—in short, is an organization of attitudes. The remaining postulates deal with education, cultural differences, changes, conflicts and values. The postulates are presented as suggestive rather than exhaustive, i.e., as guides and challenges to further investigation. Perhaps the concluding sentence of this essay is a fair statement of Professor Faris's philosophy of life: "The business of man is to seek good ends; intelligence is the instrument for making the quests effective; and science is the effort to perfect the instrument and to make it adequate."

Space prevents reference to specific essays; only a few general impressions of the book can be given; in a sense, however, this involves a cursory estimate of Faris's work, since the book is a careful selection of his published essays over a considerable period of time. It is quite possible that the best is yet to come.

Faris' mind is essentially eclectic, dialectic, and frequently polemic. He writes with exceptional clarity and vigor and is a master of the neatly turned phrase which has taken the wind out of many a puffed sail. His

review of Pareto will long remain a model of this type of writing. He has put the heat on more half-baked ideas than perhaps any other man among living sociologists, but he is never the mere carping critic nor quibbler over terms. Those capable of learning can profit a great deal from controversies with Faris, and thousands of students have learned much from his incisive analyses of the writings of other men.

The works of Sumner, Cooley, Mead, Dewey and Thomas seem most congenial to his mind, while MacDougall, Watson, Freud, and possibly Levy-Bruhl have aroused the greatest negative reactions. Faris has never been an "apostle" of any man, nor does he fail to give such credit as he thinks is due to the men whom he criticizes most vigorously. Your true eclectic cannot either be or make an apostle. Faris may have some apostolic students abroad in the land, but I am sure this gives him more sorrow than pleasure.

While he is a very keen dialectician, Faris has no use for dogmatic dialectics. He has highly developed the art of "disagreeing agreeably"; he hits hard but has the saving grace of humor, a fundamental kindliness and generosity, and that tentative mindedness which is characteristic of the true scholar and gentleman.

He has given the instinctivists, the uncritical psychoanalysts, the radical behaviorists, the rampant mental testers and biological hereditarians, the simplistic explainers of all schools, and the too ambitious social statisticians many hard and well deserved blows. Personally, I think he has dealt too lightly with the Gestaltists, Insighters, and Attitudinarians, although none of them have escaped scot-free. This is especially true of the naïve questionnaire attitude researchers who formulate frowsy questions, suggest answers, neglect the situational multiple-factors, and end up by carrying out their computations to the third decimal. He has also paid his disrespect to so-called "insight," not based upon trained observation and careful attention to the logical and scientific methods with which all competent students must be familiar.

His greatest positive contributions, aside from having been for many years a stimulating and creative teacher and an admirable editor of the *American Journal of Sociology*, are probably in the field of ethnological social psychology, particularly, in giving us a better understanding of racial (cultural) conflict. His knowledge of preliterate peoples, gained both from wide reading and from personal experience and observation, he has applied to important problems of education, discipline (penal and parental), race, class and sectarian conflict as they are manifested in our own culture.

I had read most all the articles before, some of them several times, but I re-read them all with unalloyed pleasure and additional profit. I welcome this collection so that I can refer my students easily to some of these interesting and illuminating essays. Faris is much better endowed than most men with scholarship, originality, and critical-mindedness, while very few equal him in his felicitous use of the English language.

READ BAIN

Miami University

Psychology and the Social Order. By J. F. BROWN. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1936. Pp. xiv+529. \$3.50.

The main contribution of this volume is its serious attempt to present a theoretical framework in terms of which all social behavior can be rationally interpreted. As such it may be recommended to all sociologists, although it presents little new data and although not everyone will agree with the applications made and the conclusions drawn. Appendix B (and Chapter 3) on "The Topological and Non-Metricized Dynamical Variants in Social Field Structure" gives an excellent brief statement of the method. This is, in the reviewer's opinion, the most valuable part of the book. While the method has previously been advanced by Lewin and others (duly acknowledged by Mr. Brown), this volume is the most lucid exposition of the approach with special reference to sociology that has yet appeared.

Briefly, the proposed framework consists of a spatial mathematical construct regarded as a field of force to which all psychological and sociological behavior may be ordered, just as electrical behavior is ordered to an electromagnetic field and falling bodies are ordered to the gravitational field. Any segment or aspect of social behavior in general may be regarded as such a field within which all relevant factors may influence significantly any or all of the others. The force behind any behavior is considered to have magnitude and direction and can therefore be represented by vectors indicating the significant relationships between factors. These relationships may be topologically represented also for fields not yet structured to scalar units and for behavior not yet metricized. (Topology is a recognized geometry which deals with the representation of relationships positionally, independent of direction or distance.) Through these constructs it is possible that so-called qualitative and, as yet, non-metricized relationships may be rendered about as objective as quantitative and metricized constructs. In view of the great need in sociology for symbolic devices to represent relationships much too complicated to be matched objectively by ordinary verbal methods the development of a standardized set of topological symbols to describe such relationships deserves most careful consideration. Several excellent chapters in other parts of the book (e.g., Ch. 15, "The Original Nature of Man"—perhaps the best brief treatment to be found in a textbook today) illustrate the value of the approach in clearing up subjects hitherto hopelessly bogged down in obsolete philosophical terminology. To be sure, the field theory is merely a more thoroughgoing "environmental" analysis of social behavior. But in view of the still persisting fondness for interpreting this behavior in terms of the soul and mind, the drives and urges of man, Brown's contribution is extremely valuable.

The other chapters of the section on methodology are a more or less rhetorical attempt to demolish vitalistic and "atomistic-mechanistic" theories of biology in favor of organismic and Gestalt theories. In this connection Mr. Brown tilts with great enthusiasm against a bogey man which he calls "atomistic-mechanism." Not a single defender of this strange

monstrosity as conjured up and described by the author is cited, of course for the simple reason that there is none to cite. Certain customary and absurd claims for Gestaltism as something unique and contrary to contemporary behaviorism are here tiresomely repeated. This is all the more strange since the author clearly knows better. In Appendix A, for example (p. 481), he admits that "this method has been recently advocated by the American behaviorists and the Viennese neopositivists as well as the Gestalt psychologists." The method referred to he calls the "hypothetico-deductive." In view of the comment just quoted, the attempt in Chapter 2 and elsewhere to make out that this method is either new or a special contribution of the Gestalters requires no further comment. His contrast between "class" theory and "field" theory is, also, not as fundamental as he thinks.

In addition to the Methodological Section, there is a Sociological, a Psychological, and a Political Science Section. There are some excellent analyses in each of these sections but they also contain certain gratuitous departures which will, I fear, cause many readers to discard the whole book as a piece of Marxian propaganda. The author anticipates this and says that "should critics take this standpoint, it will not bother me much" (p. vii). That is too bad, for if he had allowed it to bother him, a chief fault of the book could have been reasonably avoided. The author goes on to say, "I admit an antifascist bias, because it is daily more obvious that fascism is antiscientific. Even the most 'disinterested' scientist after all must believe in science" (p. vii). It remains a fact that propaganda for science *isn't* science any more than propaganda for the church is theology. We encounter here, of course, the frequently-recurring point as to whether sociology (in contrast to all other sciences), in addition to developing verifiable principles of social behavior must not also evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of various applications of these principles in contemporary life. I have recently dealt with the point elsewhere (*Amer. Jour. Sociol.*, March, 1937) and will not go over the matter again. After much stress on the non-evaluative character of science, it is amusing indeed to come upon a section under the caption "Is Religious Behavior Necessary?" It gives the reader the same feeling as one would experience if, on opening a book on biology, one encountered a section entitled "Is Sex Necessary?" After an appropriately ridiculous discussion of his question (including an entirely inadequate definition of religion) the author arrives at a flat negative. Yet the main thesis of the whole book, ably and voluminously defended, is that *all* social events are the result of the structure of the field in which they occur. (He even admits that this applies also to religious behavior—p. 163.) One wonders why there are not also sections on whether Fascism and Communism are necessary with a different answer in each case.

I have no objections to the author's prejudices on either religion or politics, and I have no objection to his writing a book setting them forth. I object only to his attempt to pass them off as scientific conclusions. He frequently refers to how membership-character in a class (or psychological

"region") probably conditioned the outlook of various writers, as indeed may be reasonably contended, especially under the field theory. His conclusion doubtless is that as a result we can't ever have just a science of sociology as we have a science of physics or physiology. It would always be either Marxian, Capitalist, Christian, Catholic, etc., etc., sociology. He overlooks that, to apply again his own theory, this dilemma has been resolved in the other sciences by requiring all scientists who would be taken seriously, first to acquire membership-character in a "region" called Science (i.e., subject himself to a certain rigorous discipline especially regarding his likes and dislikes), which so conditions their outlook that even Communists, Fascists, Catholics, and Jews can arrive at the same conclusions about the behavior of other natural phenomena. Numerous further illustrations of the point from the present work could be cited. I regret that such lapses should, for purely evangelical reasons, be allowed to mar an otherwise excellent work.

GEORGE A. LUNDBERG

Bennington College

A Study of History. By ARNOLD J. TOYNBEE, 3 vols. 2nd ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 1935. Pp. xvi+484, vii+452, vi+551. \$17.50.

An example of culture case study that, although pervaded by a somewhat extraneous philosophy of history, nevertheless is strikingly successful, looms before us in Arnold J. Toynbee's *A Study of History*. Three massive tomes (1st ed., 1934; 2nd, 1935) of the projected twelve-volume work have appeared, and they are sufficiently self-contained to be dealt with by themselves.

The adjective "successful" has just been applied to Toynbee's enterprise—and it undoubtedly is warranted in so far as *culture case study* is concerned. In other respects a number of flaws are evident, and of these we must first take account. Most important of these defects is that already noted; namely, Toynbee's adherence to a universal and transcendent philosophy of history. He has taken over seriously Goethe's conception of evil as a force that in spite of itself makes for good. This is but an echo of the far older belief that "All things work together for good for them that love God." *Sub specie aeternitatis*, such a belief may indeed be true, but it has nothing to do with science. Second among the blemishes is a vague mysticism that leads Toynbee to play with terms such as *yin* and *yang* in a way that results in emotional exaltation rather than intellectual clarity. Third is a shortcoming common to historians who manufacture their sociology *ad hoc*; viz., in almost complete ignorance of the critical sociological literature. For example, Toynbee has adopted a number of Huntington's most dubious doctrines—doctrines that were demolished long ago. This is the more regrettable in view of the fact that the merits of Toynbee's analysis are relatively independent of the truth or falsity of Huntington's theories. Fourth, Toynbee wastes a great deal of energy and space in attacking racial dogmas that are entertained seriously only by Nazis,

English colonels in India, and a number of sub-Mason-Dixon Americans; here again his lack of acquaintance with the critical literature has led him to home-brew his sociology. (This defect, by the way, is common among British writers.)

In spite of these and many other flaws, however, there can be no contesting the profound significance of Toynbee's work. He begins with a telling attack on extreme historicism, and goes on to consider, very circumspectly and thoroughly, a number of vital questions of method. After formulating a plan of operations centering about several societies shown to be "intelligible fields of historical study," he isolates twenty-one comparable entities to which a method of culture case study can be applied. (Needless to say, he does not use American terminology!) These are: Egyptian, Andean; Sinic, Minoan, Sumeric, Mayan; Syriac; Indic, Hittite, Hellenic; Western; Orthodox Christian (in Russia), Far Eastern (in Korea and Japan); Orthodox Christian (main body), Far Eastern (main body); Iranic; Arabic, Hindu, Mexican; Yucatec; and Babylonian.

We cannot stop to present Toynbee's reasons for the peculiar juxtapositions evident in the above classifications; suffice it to say that he makes good his case. The problem which the comparison of these societies is designed to solve is that of the genesis and growth of civilizations (these being regarded as distinct from "primitive societies"). His next step is to consider a number of "possible negative and positive factors" which would help to account for the traits which civilized groups manifest as over against more "primitive" types. He concludes, not without a strong admixture of value-judgment, that the negative factors of "psychic inertia" and "inferior race" provide no satisfying explanations. Turning then to the natural environment as a possible positive factor, he quite conclusively demonstrates, through the skillful dissection of several culture cases, that favorable natural environments do not necessarily engender civilizations. In fact, Toynbee renders plausible the theory that peculiarly *unfavorable* natural environments have in some cases been among the significant factors in initiating the transition from "primitivism" to civilization. For Egypt, the challenge of drought; Sumeria, trackless marsh; China, flood; Mayan civilization, tropical forest; Andean, bleak climate and grudging soil; Minoan, sea; and so on for many of the twenty-one culture cases. In other instances, where challenges from the natural environment have been conspicuously lacking, there have been challenges from the human environment, and especially from what Toynbee calls external and internal proletariats (of which proletariats instances are afforded by the Germanic barbarians and the early Christians respectively).

The similarity of all this to what Thomas has called "crisis" is plain to every informed American sociologist. The likeness is rendered more striking by Toynbee's masterly survey of "the range of challenge-and-response." The stimulus of hard-countries; the stimulus of new ground; the stimulus of blows; the stimulus of pressures; the stimulus of penalizations—all are analyzed with amazing dexterity and with an abundance of comparable culture cases. So great is the scope of Toynbee's knowledge of history that

he is often able to select cases in which only the crucial factors vary; he therefore provides virtually experimental setups for many of his generalizations. Numerous appendices furnish a mass of corroborative detail. The upshot is that the vital rôle of challenge-and-response in the genesis of civilizations is incontestably demonstrated; here culture case study has won a veritable triumph.

We can be much less sure of the adequacy of Toynbee's researches with regard to the *growth* of civilizations. To be sure, his analysis of the factors in arrested growth carries conviction, based as it is on the adroitly chosen cases of the Eskimos, the Mongols, the 'Osmanli Janissaries, and the Spartiates. The conclusion is inevitable that machine-like or ant-like perfection of adaptation inevitably checks further change. When Toynbee turns to the positive factors in civilizational growth, however, he is much less convincing. The soft mystical note that merely confuses the earlier parts of his work becomes so loud toward the end of the third volume that it almost drowns out the systematic-empirical strain. We therefore do not discuss his concepts of "etherialization" and "withdrawal-and return," largely because we do not fully understand them. Perhaps the volumes planned to follow those we have so briefly discussed will set affairs right again.

The work as it now stands has a full table of contents, an exhaustive index, and is adequately documented throughout. No matter what the flaws may seem to be, Toynbee has given to sociologists a magnificent and scholarly specimen of the possibilities of culture case study. It remains only for us to be inspired by his example.

HOWARD BECKER

Smith College

The Middle Classes Then and Now. By FRANKLIN C. PALM. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1936. Pp. xiv+421. \$3.50.

In the flood of books on the middle classes this study has a place by itself. Palm does not call for an "Insurgent America." He does not give solutions for "the crisis of the middle class." He makes no attempt to interpret the past and present or to predict the future. His aim is more modest and less pretentious: a preliminary historical introduction, a chronological and factual account of the rise and development of the middle classes and of the part played by them from ancient times to the present—"a story so far largely untold." Within this compass the study is a success and supplies a much felt need.

As far as there is any basic thesis in the book, it is the statement "that our modern society with its political, social and economic institutions, is dominated by the great middle classes." Because this is all too true, the story of the burgher widens to a general social history. Its great stations are: the ancient periods with their early self-made men, the medieval city, the Italian Renaissance and the Commercial Revolution, the Protestant revolt, the mercantile system, the bourgeois Holland of the 16th and 17th century, the American and French revolutions, the Industrial Revolution,

the Victorian era, the World War and its aftermath, the Old Deal and the New Deal in the U. S. A. Four chapters on "literature and the middle classes" illustrate this development in novel and poetry through the centuries.

Of course such a brief treatment is like a trip over Europe *à la* Cook. No comprehensive description can be expected. This short summary sometimes leads to colorless portraits, historical errors, and bold generalizations. Furthermore it is of necessity an individual selection of the abundant facts and phases. Others will put a diverse emphasis on different stages. One may miss a clear distinction between the different historical manifestations and characteristics of the middle classes. They were certainly not the same in ancient and modern times. One would like to hear more about the controversies on the driving forces behind the rise of capitalism. An interpretation of the development and influence of the professions since the middle ages would be worth while. The feudalization of the middle classes, chiefly in 19th century Germany, and the French bourgeois reaction against "Americanization" in more recent years should have been discussed. And more important, the new middle classes of dependent salaried employees would deserve particular consideration. They are not just "one of the main stays of the middle classes for centuries." Their increase in number and their changing social economic status certainly call for a more exhaustive discussion and a new orientation. Especially with such new trends in mind, one may even object to the author's definition of the middle classes, which is vague and not at all conclusive and consistent throughout the book. Perhaps these questions would have been more emphasized if Professor Palm would have taken more into account the abundant German literature concerned, in addition to his excellent selection of Anglo-Saxon and French material. Groethuysen, Max Weber, Strieder, Steinhausen, Dunkmann, Below, Riehl, Theodor Geiger, Lederer, Buecher, Freytag, Fontane, and Fallada are a few authors worth mentioning.

But such additions, references and corrections do not impair the qualities of the book. It presents a valuable guide to the burgher's long history, a masterful selection and organization of material not always easily available. That such an almost encyclopedic attempt is never boring is perhaps the best commendation for the author. Lively style, simple and concrete analysis, rich and excellent choice of quotations, and the warmth of his presentation make this study far more than a crude collection of facts, but a real introduction for a generation "to whom the fate of society is of more consequence than to those of the passing age."

Often one would have liked to learn more of the sources used, but such omissions were unavoidable because the book deliberately keeps aloof from scholarly display. Thus the student of the bourgeoisie has to wait for the formal bibliography of the middle classes which the author promises; but with this preliminary investigation Palm has already given us a valuable contribution.

SIGMUND NEUMANN

Wesleyan University

Landlord and Peasant in China: A Study of the Agrarian Crisis in South China. By CHEN HAN-SENG. New York: International Publishers, 1936. Pp. xvii + 144. \$2.00.

It has been said of China that when the logic of a situation points clearly in a certain direction the contrary usually eventuates. Prediction regarding the possible turn of events in China is always hazardous, however, due to the fact that the elements of any situation are rarely known with sufficient adequacy to make prognostication valuable. The question of a growing Communism, or Sovietization, in China holds enormous significance not only for the Chinese but for the world at large, yet any forecasts as to such a development must rest on very meager data regarding the agrarian situations which will largely condition the course of economic events in rural China. This small volume, prepared by a member of the Research Committee of the China Institute of Pacific Relations, supplies abundant factual information for an understanding of the land problem in the southern province of Kwantung, at one time a stronghold of the Communist movement in China. Here may be found, supporting a tale of exceeding misery, the answers to important questions of land ownership and use, the system of tenancy, the wages of agricultural labor, the burdens of rent, taxation and debt, and the effects of all these on the agricultural output and the peasant of south China. The data, based on direct investigation of ten representative villages and supplemented by materials on the various districts of the province, is of incontrovertible significance, whether or not one accepts Dr. Chen's interpretation.

MARGARET ALEXANDER MARSH

Smith College

Poverty and Population in India. By D. G. KARVE. London and New York: Oxford University Press, Humphrey Milford, 1936. Pp. 127. \$1.50.

Professor Karve's little book is more substantial than its size indicates. It is primarily an answer to the query whether the Indian population has, since 1900, increased more rapidly than resources. Using the admittedly faulty data at hand, he presents first a picture of births, deaths, sex ratio, expectation of life, and employable and employed population. He then presents a picture of the agricultural, industrial, financial and commercial developments, warranting the conclusion that there has very probably been some improvement in per capita production. This has, however, in comparison with other nations, been painfully slight; poverty, starvation, and malnutrition are all too obvious. Where lie the remedies? The author answers: "In a general intellectual and social reformation. The people of India must be taught the dignity of the human being, the supremacy of reason, and the value of planning one's life."

This answer sounds like an effort to escape from a paralyzing reality by the ethical route. Throughout the author seems unduly concerned lest the reader conclude that the population of India is too large, or that birth

control be suggested as a possible partial remedy. He admits that there are now more people than can be employed in agriculture or otherwise; but he contends that the birth rate (the highest in the world, except for Egypt) is not too high, while admitting that the death rate (highest in the world) is excessive and that the expectation of life (less than half that of the West) is too low. It would seem reasonable to begin the reforms with measures more tangible than that of preaching a philosophy alien to the deeply ingrained mores and habits of the people.

FRANK H. HANKINS

Smith College

Humanity Made to Order. The Rise and Fall of the Russian Experiment. By HARRY STEKOLL. New York: Lee Furman, 1937. Pp. 253. \$2.50.

Collectivism, a False Utopia. By W. H. CHAMBERLIN. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. 265. \$2.00.

The Fascist, His State and His Mind. By E. B. ASHTON. New York: William Morrow and Company, 1937. Pp. xv+350. \$2.50.

Political and Economic Democracy. Ed. by MAX ASCOLI and FRITZ LEHMANN. New York: W. W. Norton and Company, 1937. Pp. 336. \$3.00.

The first of the above works is written by a native-born Russian who came to this country in 1911 and revisited Russia in 1931 and again in 1936. Knowing the language he was able to escape Intourist guides and make his own observations. He found little to warrant his approval. He concludes that dictatorial state capitalism has failed in Russia on all fronts, industrial, agricultural, educational and humanitarian. His findings are somewhat impressionistic but interestingly and realistically told.

Chamberlin, already well known as the author of *Russia's Iron Age* and other works on Russia, here writes a general plea for democracy in the form of a comparison of the structures and achievements of the collectivist states, "Communist" Russia, Fascist Italy, and Nazi Germany, their new tyrannical techniques and the difficulties now confronting democratic countries. It is informed and informing and thoughtful. His conclusions as to the material success of the Russian experiment tally with those of Stekoll. He especially insists that, by their own statistics, the per capita food supply—grain and livestock—in Russia today is less than in 1913; that real wages have shown no improvement, even when they are not less; and that a collectivized peasant who is able to own a bathtub, an automobile, or a telephone is difficult to find. The Chamberlin work is simply written but so inspired with zeal for democracy that it constitutes one of the best popular "tracts for the times" the reviewer has read.

Ashton's treatise is a complete analysis of the theory and practise of fascism, beginning with a clear definition of that widely used and almost universally abused term, and following with a study of its political, economic and administrative structure, its international relations and its threat

to democratic institutions. Less popular than the foregoing, it should not be missed by any serious student of current social trends.

Political and Economic Democracy represents the results of the collective effort of the faculty of the "University in Exile" carried out in the General Seminar. There are twenty different authors, twenty-one chapters, and ten pages of "Notes" giving carefully selected references. Needless to say, the essays are of excellent quality. Many phases of current sociological evolution in relation to democratic theory and practice are thoughtfully and suggestively treated, including economic planning, trade unions, monopolies, public utilities, the co-operative movement, political organization, class stratification, wealth distribution, public opinion, and foreign policy. While imbued with the clear conviction that democratic institutions constitute the surest means of promoting the general welfare, the papers are marked by a reflective objectivity that make them thought-provoking. In style they are clear and substantial rather than brilliant; in content, they are soundly analytical rather than strikingly original. Nevertheless, they clarify, broaden, and deepen one's understanding of the issues involved in the transformation of our political into an economic democracy.

FRANK H. HANKINS

Smith College

Frontiers of Science. By CARL T. CHASE. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1936. Pp. xi+352. \$3.75.

The Story of Human Error. Ed. by JOSEPH JASTROW. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1936. Pp. xvii+436. \$3.50.

These two books complement each other, the first surveying the present state of knowledge in the field of science, and the second showing how each science has struggled upward through error to whatever truth it now holds.

The *Frontiers of Science* presents in succinct and delightful English the recent theories and facts relative to astronomy, physics, chemistry, health, and biochemistry and biophysics. It is a careful and authentic report and evaluation of the labors of mankind endeavoring to satisfy its needs, hopes, and ambitions through the mastery of the natural world. As non-technical as the subjects allow, the book should serve a useful purpose in informing the general reader.

The Story of Human Error is the work of sixteen recognized authorities in as many sciences covering most phases of the world and man. In the fields of astronomy, geology, geography, physics, mathematics, chemistry, zoology, physiology, neuropsychology, history, anthropology, psychology, sociology, medicine, and psychiatry a specialist traces what the editor has designated as the "false leads, futile quests, quagmires of ignorance, thickets of superstition, obstructions of dogma, and the ineptitudes of reasoning" through which the science has struggled in its process of development. Thus is brought together a formidable body of accurate historical data, in a book of much literary skill and charm, giving an account of the making of the sciences.

Taken together these stories of trial and error, as the editor states, "reconstruct the by-ways in the natural history of thought"; and selected scenes from "that long range panorama may be pieced together as the procession of ideas."

The work is a worth-while contribution, whether taken as a whole or chapter by chapter. Its method of approach is refreshing and illuminating. It is, in the opinion of the reviewer, much more revealing than any treatise on the evolution of the sciences written from the viewpoint of positive achievements could be. This book might well be prescribed as a general regimen for college students, for it would show them at once how tortuous is the way of truth and how fraught with error the latest and best knowledge is very likely to be in all realms of science.

NEWELL L. SIMS

Oberlin College

Methodenlehre der Sozialwissenschaften. By FELIX KAUFMAN. Wien: Verlag von Julius Springer, 1936. Pp. vi+331. RM 16.50.

Dr. Kaufman undertakes in this volume a comprehensive and systematic critique of the methods of the social sciences—"methods" in the fundamental logical sense particularly, rather than in the sense of techniques of investigation. Following a short general introduction, the book is divided into two main parts: "Part I, Elements of the General Theory of Science," and "Part II, The Controversy over Method in the Social Sciences." Part II concludes with two chapters in which, by way of illustration, the author examines the theory of marginal utility and a general theory of law to determine their methodological validity.

The book is formulated in highly technical language on the whole, so that it is difficult reading for anyone who is not especially familiar with the literature and vocabulary of formal logic and epistemology. This is particularly true of Part I; readers may find it desirable to begin with Part II, which is relatively complete and intelligible by itself. In it the author undertakes a critical analysis of the relations between social science and psychology, and between sociology and history; also a rather extended consideration of the methodological contributions of Max Weber and his students. Extensive bibliographical notes are collected at the end of the volume; and there are indexes of names and topics.

FLOYD N. HOUSE

University of Virginia

A Preface to Racial Understanding. CHARLES S. JOHNSON. New York: Friendship Press, 1936. Pp. 206. \$1.00.

This brief and elementary *Preface* was apparently designed for church groups which are using "The American Negro" this year as their topic for discussion. For sociologists this is the least important of Dr. Johnson's books. There is nothing in it that cannot be obtained from his earlier pub-

lications or from other well-known books in this field. There can be no disagreement with the first chapter, which is called "The Story of the Negro." Dr. Johnson is at his best on historical themes, but when he comes to contemporary situations he is not always incisive. One cannot understand why the only really significant forces at work in current race relations, namely, the Southern Tenant Farmers' Union, The Committee on Industrial Organization, the radical political groups, and Workers' Education are all but ignored in a publication of this sort.

There is a vague reference to the desirability of the Negro casting his lot with "labor generally." Even more vague is the statement that "what seems most desirable is the readjustment of our entire economic system to the original conception of democracy." This is on a par with the statement that "this does not augur well for the future unless some steps are taken soon to make the fundamental corrections in the present organization of agriculture in the area (the Southeastern states)." The author says that "Practically every civilized country of the world except the United States has undertaken fundamental reforms in its system of land tenure. It is imperative that some reorganization of cotton tenancy be effected now that will provide a decent self-supporting way of life." Apparently by "fundamental corrections" and "reorganization of cotton tenancy" is meant the rehabilitation of "some seven hundred thousand Negro tenant families" through the resettlement program of the Federal government.

There is a short chapter on Negro health, housing, and the family. Many useful facts on Negro education are presented, although the roles of the church and the various philanthropic foundations are played up rather too strongly. In fact, it seems that Dr. Johnson loses no opportunity to praise the work of religious organizations and the great foundations. References are continually made to the good that they have accomplished, but there is no mention of the harm that these bodies have sometimes done. I refer, for example, to the compromises of the churches on segregation, even in their own houses of worship and at their annual conventions. I refer also to the intentional and unintentional domination of Negro education and publications about Negroes on the part of the large foundations.

Far from putting the class angle on race relations, Dr. Johnson explains that these relations "in an ultimate sense are personal relations." For "the conquest of racial prejudice" he advocates interracial gatherings, more exact information about local situations, greater tolerance on the part of employers toward Negroes with respect to opportunities for advancement and adequate wages, and numerous other ways of increasing interracial understanding and co-operation. Dr. Johnson's philosophy is that of "doing the next thing," and he quotes with approval, in ending his book, an old African proverb which says: "If you know well the beginning, the end will not trouble you much."

There are those who believe that the good people who have race prejudices cannot be expected to go the whole distance in one jump, but that they can be led gently and unsuspectingly along the path of righteousness. Gradually they will see the light, and overcome by the injustice and the

rationalizations about them, to say nothing of their own feelings of guilt, they will do something about the American Race Problem. They may even go so far as to make a speech somewhere. All of this may be very well but one suspects that the share cropper organizations and the industrial unions will dispel more race prejudice than all of the church study groups in the country. It would seem that Dr. Johnson missed an opportunity to give the religious folk a good stiff jolt on the race question.

GEORGE E. SIMPSON

Temple University

The Negro As Capitalist. A Study of Banking and Business Among American Negroes. By ABRAHAM L. HARRIS. Philadelphia: The American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1936. Pp. 205. \$2.75.

The Negro Genius. A New Appraisal of the Achievement of the American Negro in Literature and the Fine Arts. By BENJAMIN BRAWLEY. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1937. Pp. 366. \$2.50.

In these two books, we have thrown into sharp relief the contrast between two viewpoints which have characterized studies of Negro life. Professor Harris's book, a painstaking and objective study of Negro business, is representative of the growing number of competent Negro scholars who in studying the problems of the Negro utilize the same techniques and valuations as scholars in other fields. On the other hand, in Professor Brawley's book we have on the whole a sentimental evaluation of the Negro's achievement in art and literature, viewed from the standpoint of standards generally applied by sentimental whites and naïve Negroes to the work of Negroes.

Professor Harris's book is concerned primarily with the economic basis of the Negro middle class. Hence, it offers a critical evaluation of those programs—sponsored in the past by Booker Washington and today by DuBois—that are designed to achieve the Negro's economic salvation by building a separate economy. After giving a brief survey of the role of Negro labor in the evolution of capitalist economy and the accumulation of wealth among the free Negroes before the Civil War, the author shows how the ill-starred Freedmen's Bank left a legacy of middle-class ideals and training which found expression in the leadership of "the organization of fraternal insurance bodies and banks owned and managed by Negroes." This legacy expressed itself in the organization of the first Negro banks and in the preachments of Negro leaders from 1880 on that the masses seek their salvation through business enterprise. There was a high mortality among Negro banks, not to mention other types of business enterprises. In order "to determine the causes of the failure of the individual banks and the weaknesses of Negro banking generally," Professor Harris investigates, chiefly on the basis of bankruptcy proceedings, the organization, administration, and structure of over sixty banks in Virginia, Maryland, District of Columbia, Pennsylvania, and Illinois.

His investigation revealed that in spite of individual cases of dishonesty the banks "had too large a capital structure for the amount of deposit business," that the ratio of loans and discounts to deposits was too high, and that the loans and discounts were secured by real estate or chattel property. Thus, the character of Negro banking has been determined by the position of the Negro in the economic system. The masses of the Negro workers bear the losses in the failure of these banks, whereas a relatively small white collar class is only temporarily benefited. Thus, the author rightly concludes that the economic foundation of the Negro middle class is insecure and that there is no hope of economic salvation through a segregated black economy.

Professor Brawley's book is scarcely more than a catalogue of the Negro "geniuses" whose meagre achievements have been recounted so often that it is strange that the public still pays to read of them. Naturally, a book of this type contains no really critical evaluations of the works of those included. In fact, in the selection of those eligible to the rank of genius, one can detect the influence of intra- and inter-racial "politics." People without the slightest claim to literary or artistic achievements are placed in the pantheon of Negro "geniuses." For some strange reason, the author presents the thesis that the black or unmixed Negroes have produced the geniuses and the mulattoes the talented men and women. Without presenting a bit of evidence, he attempts to prove his thesis by asserting that the unknown authors of the Negro spirituals were unmixed Negroes! Yet, in his catalogue of Negro "geniuses," he has gone across the ocean and dragged in two mulattoes—Dumas and Pushkin—who, of course have a better claim to rank as geniuses than any of the American Negroes—pure or mixed—included in his list. Inasmuch as Professor Brawley ventured into the field of biological or sociological speculation about Negro genius, he might have attempted to account for the fact that no American Negro writer has shown the genius of Dumas or Pushkin.

E. FRANKLIN FRAZIER

Howard University

We, the Tikopia. A sociological Study of Kinship in Primitive Polynesia.

By RAYMOND FIRTH. With a preface by B. Malinowski. New York: American Book Co., 1936. Pp. xxv+605. \$6.00.

A Black Civilization. A Social Study of an Australian Tribe. By W. LLOYD WARNER. With an introduction by R. H. Lowie. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937. Pp. xviii+594. \$5.00.

Both of these sturdy volumes describe the social life of primitive peoples in tropical Oceania. The Tikopia occupy a small island at the eastern extremity of the British Solomon Island Protectorate. They are Polynesians, numbering 1200 individuals. Dr. Firth spent a year among them, pursuing his inquiries after the first few weeks in the native tongue. Although half the Tikopia are superficially Christianized, there are no white residents and these islanders, share with another group the distinction of maintaining

native Polynesian culture relatively undisturbed. The people described by Professor Warner are the natives of Arnhem Land, a section of northern Australia. He employs the proper name Murngin as a general designation for the eight "tribes" in this area that exhibit the same type of social organization and general culture, and specifically for the groups that occupy the central part of the region. These aborigines number about 3000 all told.

Many sociologists, I suspect, have frequently felt that the detailed study of kinship by the social anthropologist is a peculiar, even esoteric affectation. In so far as investigation has been confined to kinship nomenclature and typology, perhaps there is considerable truth in the charge. But since sociologists have always evinced an unswerving devotion to the family as a province of study, the books under review merit the closest scrutiny. On the one hand, they should serve to expose once and for all the extremely superficial and undependable character of much that has been written about the family in aboriginal societies. On the other hand, they demonstrate concretely the methodological value of an approach to the study of the family through an analysis of the functioning of specific kinship patterns. The family thus assumes its place as a kinship unit within the total range of kin recognized and the social structure of a particular society considered as a whole. From this point of view kinship terminology assumes an instrumental function. It is a guide to significant forms of inter-personal behavior, attitudes and even to psychological conflicts. "The central problem for the student is to see kinship terminologies as a definite part of the dynamism of kinship relations, to determine how far the separation and combination of relatives under linguistic labels can be correlated with other sociological phenomena" (Firth, p. 249).

Firth's book, as its subtitle indicates, is primarily devoted to social organization approached through an analysis of how kinship functions. It will be followed by other volumes describing the religious organization of the Tikopia and other topics. The author's description of Village Life, Household and Family, Personal Relations in the Family Circle and to the Kin of Father and Mother, convey a highly realistic impression because his account is unusually rich in concrete and significant detail. He distinguishes between formal (prescribed) and informal (non-prescribed) behavior towards relatives (p. 128) and finds (p. 202) that "the differences in informal behavior increase with the remoteness of the kinship tie in much greater proportion than do those in formal behavior. The personal, non-codified aspect varies greatly with nearness or distance of the kinship bond, proximity of residence or number of persons involved in the kinship situation." The distinction is important because all the Tikopia terms have more than one referent. Actual behavior is thus seen to be somewhat independent of kinship nomenclature. Since culture patterns of all kinds have so frequently been identified with *actual* behavior (which accounts in some instances for the fantastic theories of primitive mentality that have been inferred from generalized accounts of the culture of various peoples), the principle involved in the distinction which Firth emphasizes has wider

theoretical and methodological implications. Another problem discussed by the author which is often ignored, is the adjustments in terminology and behavior that are necessary where blood ties are interfered with by those created by affinal relationship. The functioning of kinship in relation to the clan, land ownership, initiation, sex, etc., is also discussed. Moreover, through its projection "into the realm of the spirit-heavens it gives the basis for approach to ancestors and gods, and is used as the key to the interpretation of the disordered behavior of individuals in a state of dissociation" (p. 578).

Warner presents an integrated picture of a native Australian society that has hitherto been lacking in the ethnological literature of this area. In the chapter devoted to the "Family and Kinship Structure" as such, he again makes the distinction to which he has previously called attention, viz., between the "family of orientation" and the "family of procreation," and describes the "kinship personality" of ego systematically with respect to his reciprocal relations to all classes of relatives. (There are a total of 71 kinds.) In this society besides the elementary family unit and the extended kin group, the clan, the moiety and subsection are important parts of the formal social structure; while the tribe and the horde are somewhat amorphous. A large section of the book is devoted to totemism; other chapters deal with warfare, magic, medicine, mortuary rites and technology. There are eight appendices ranging from historical data on cultural changes in the area to anthropometry. The author shows a keen interest in theoretical questions throughout and has introduced many original diagrams by way of clarification.

Both volumes are illustrated and are adequately indexed.

A. IRVING HALLOWELL

University of Pennsylvania

The Eskimos. By KAJ BIRKET-SMITH. (With a Foreword by Diamond Jenness, 32 plates and an endpaper map.) New York: E. P. Dutton and Co., 1936. Pp. xiv+250. \$5.00.

Among the works now being produced by social ethnologists in the relatively new phases of approach to comparative sociology, *The Eskimos* is no pigmy. It is devised and executed with the broad sense of judgment and understanding of subjects of importance—an ethnological Titan. To say more in a review intended to serve as a subpoena to the social scientist to present himself in person to the volume would be to furnish him with the excuse—which indeed many of us employ—for considering the reviews as substitutes for actual contacts with books we need to read carefully. Dr. Birket-Smith's *The Eskimos* is decidedly one of these.

The Eskimos are sociologically unique. No other people on earth swing so completely with the pendulum of the seasons. No other must alternate the basis of its economy so completely from sea to land and from winter to summer. Here the emphasis must lie on a material culture extravagantly, even superbly, developed. At the same time the severity of existence per-

mits the survival of only a small population with a correspondingly simple social structure. All of these facts are brought out and illustrated with a wealth of detail in this fine volume. The reviewer is unaware of any existing work on the Eskimo which can compare with it in lucidity and insight. Amply interwoven with factual and specific information such chapters as "The Struggle For Food" and "Fighting the Cold" by their very titles give evidence of Birket-Smith's full realization of the drama of existence on the inhospitable shores of the Arctic. The book, scientifically intended and scientifically detailed, is far from bearing the usual parched aspect of those all too numerous monographs which, while revealing the bones of a culture, somehow allow the living substance to escape.

Again, to those specifically interested in the development of a culture so perfectly adjusted to its strange environment, Dr. Birket-Smith's chapter on Eskimo origins should prove of profound interest. Many works have been written on the living Eskimo, but outside the realm of the detailed and restricted study little on origins has been accessible to the beginning student. In this, as in its treatment of Eskimo-White relations, the volume supplies a wealth of information in a convenient and readable form.

The reviewer can unqualifiedly recommend this work both to the anthropologist and sociologist, and for qualities likely to endear it to both. Whether the attention be fixed on the geographical factor in the spread of culture, on the dynamics of a living community, on ethno-politics, or on the broad reaches of circumboreal culture, vertically in time, or horizontally in space, its pages are worth turning.

F. G. SPECK

University of Pennsylvania

The Barama River Caribs. By JOHN GILLIN. Cambridge: Papers of the Peabody Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology, Harvard University, Vol. XIV, No. 2, 1936. Pp. 274. \$3.50.

This book is a highly condensed account of the culture, physical type and language of a hitherto unstudied Carib tribe in the interior of British Guiana. Most space is devoted to the culture, which is described as it exists today, after nearly three hundred years of more or less sporadic contact with Europeans. It would be interesting to know something of the steps by which the present successful accommodation was reached, especially how and when warfare was eliminated and what substitutes were found for it as a road to individual prestige. At the time of the first European contacts, the Caribs seem to have been a strong and aggressive group who were spreading rapidly and driving the people of other stocks before them, yet war has disappeared from their culture so completely that there is no mention of it even in the folk-tales which the author gives. Perhaps the communal drinking bouts which the author describes have provided a form of substitute excitement. At least, it is hard to see how they could have been practiced on anything like the current scale at a time when there was constant danger of attack.

The account of the native life as it exists today shows keen observation, sympathy and even occasional flashes of humor. The detailed accounts of particular settlements will be especially valuable to those interested in the study of actual as distinct from theoretical social relationships. In the treatment of both the author has shown a sound common sense which is refreshing. The report also includes one valuable item which the reviewer has never encountered in any other; namely, an actual house by house inventory of native possessions. This book will prove of interest to sociologists and students of primitive economics as well as to anthropologists.

RALPH LINTON

University of Wisconsin

The Re-Establishment of the Indians in Their Pueblo Life Through the Revival of Their Traditional Crafts: A Study in Home Education. By HENRIETTA K. BURTON. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. Pp. vi+96. \$1.60.

This study in the "sociology of home economics" attributes poor living conditions and lack of initiative among Indians to patronage, relief, and an attempted destruction of native culture. A craft revival developed over a period of twenty-five years without money subsidy, in the pueblo of San Ildefonso, is sketched as illustrative of the possibility of both economic and social reconstruction through utilization of old cultural elements. Comparison with the pueblo of Nambe emphasizes the commercial importance of the San Ildefonso craft revival but leaves the reviewer desiring explanation of the absence of similar craft revival in the "neighboring" village.

PHILIPS B. BOYER

Soil Conservation Service
U. S. Department of Agriculture

The Ethnobiology of the Papago Indians (University of New Mexico Bulletin, Biological Series, Vol. 4, No. 3). By EDWARD F. CASTETTER and RUTH M. UNDERHILL. University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, 1935, pp. 84.

This paper provides interesting data for the general student of culture and for the specialist in the Southwest. The Papago are of Uto-Aztec language stock and live in the desert country of southern Arizona and northern Sonora. From the general point of view they afford a good example of how a people may culturally adapt themselves to a comparatively unproductive environment by exhaustive utilization of the resources at their command. A large part of the food supply was obtained by gathering desert products which would be considered useless in many other cultures. The authors describe in detail the particular plants and animals used and also the methods of gathering, hunting, cooking, and utilization of the organic offerings of the environment. It is interesting to note for instance that, although the Papago lived mostly upon dried foods which were generally prepared for eating by boiling, at certain seasons they made

use of no less than fifteen different plants as greens. Various parts of the cactus plants were used for vegetables, beverages, gruels, and even for the making of baskets and houses.

The authors refute the formerly accepted view of Russell that the Papago practised no agriculture. Although at the present time the people raise some European crops, the authors find evidence that even in pre-historic times they cultivated corn, beans and squashes of several varieties. These crops were planted with an ironwood digging stick and the weeds were kept down with a hoe of mesquite. Since the Papago did not practise irrigation, however, their crops depended upon summer thunder showers and were therefore variable.

A sketch of Papago history and an outline of the entire culture is provided, so that the reader may easily place the uses of the various animals and plants in their proper cultural settings.

JOHN P. GILLIN

University of Utah

Interracial Marriage in Hawaii. By ROMANZO ADAMS. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937. Pp. 353. \$4.00.

Hawaii has many advantages for the scientific observer of sociological and anthropological phenomena. It is an island universe serving as a sort of laboratory of bio-social and cultural phenomena and processes. Its conglomeration of races has frequently been studied from the viewpoints of human genetics, physical anthropology, and race psychology. There is something of the latter in this new work by Professor Adams, but this is more distinctly sociological, or historico-sociological. The history is somewhat incidental, but serves to explain both the absence of race prejudice and the relative socio-economic position of the major racial elements. The absence of race discrimination equalizes opportunity and enables the gifted individuals from all elements to attain distinction, and makes of the islands an almost unique laboratory of sociological and biological experimentation. As Professor Park says in his "Introduction," the study seems to take the reader "into the very presence of the historical process, where we may observe civilization as it evolves." The relative social positions of the races and their respective attainments are explained in terms of the length of their sojourn on the islands (except for the natives), and in terms of the cultural tradition.

Professor Adams has written an extremely valuable book. It presents not only a factual picture of intermarriage, but goes behind the facts to the social and psychological factors involved in race preferences and color preferences (light versus dark) in marriage, in the development of race consciousness among similar hybrid elements, such as Chinese-Hawaiians, Caucasian-Hawaiians and others; in the maintenance (as also in the slow destruction) of traditional family patterns among Japanese, Chinese and Hawaiians; and in numerous other respects. The author scarcely touches such moot questions as differences of native ability of the original racial

types or of the mixed bloods and the biological consequences of race mixture. Nevertheless, he has placed every sociologist in his debt.

FRANK H. HANKINS

Smith College

The Dream in Primitive Cultures. By J. S. LINCOLN. Baltimore: Williams and Wilkins, 1936. Pp. xiii + 359. \$4.00.

This work is composed of two distinct sections. One section (Part II)¹ is primarily a theoretical discussion; the other (Part III) is a collection of dreams from several North American culture areas. Both "individual" and "culture-pattern" dreams or visions are given, along with the native interpretations, beliefs, classifications and attitudes. In this section Lincoln is interested in the manifest content of the dream, and illustrates how this "reflects items of the cultural surroundings of the dreamer." He makes the point that "there is a definite correlation between the manifest dream content and the culture pattern." As a culture disintegrates items of native culture in the individual dream disappear, while culture-pattern dreams disappear entirely along with the religious culture they reflected.

This compilation of dream material, including Lincoln's own field notes on the Navaho and unpublished materials of Radin's will be a welcome contribution to academic ethnology.

In contrast to this sober presentation of factual material to illustrate simple points Part II is an effort to find, through a study of dream material from scattered areas of the earth, corroboration for the universal validity of psychoanalytic theories. This is a highly controversial and theoretical discussion of which the "tentative" conclusions, though stimulating and suggestive, tend to be substantiated by unwarranted interpretations and extravagant generalizations rather than facts.

To ethnologists Lincoln's most interesting conclusion will be that the dream is to a large extent the initiator of culture, at least in its more primitive phases. Behind the dream, as one of its more important psychological motives, is the oedipus complex which, due to the universality of the bilateral family, is always with us, wherefore we have a constant source of culture.

Other conclusions of Lincoln's are that the psychological processes and structure of dreams are everywhere alike; that the same primary ideas are expressed by the same symbols in primitive dreams as in those of our own society; that all sought or induced culture-pattern dreams are probably symbolic oedipus dreams in a specific cultural form; that independent origins of culture are explainable on the basis of the oedipus complex and the psychic unit of man; that diffusion is only possible because of the psychic unity of man, much borrowing and assimilation taking place because of the unconscious and constant need of new solutions to and transformation of the anti-social nuclear family complex.

¹ Part I, "Historical Review of Dream Interpretations," is in the nature of an introduction to the volume.

Aside from criticisms that may be made by social scientists, not kindly disposed toward psychoanalysis, the book has one serious defect which may be pointed out by analysts as well. This is a tendency toward over-application of psychoanalytic interpretations. Psychoanalytic interpretations of dreams are justifiably made only when there has been access to latent material, but this is notably lacking. As Lincoln himself says, "Several collections of individual dreams have been made but failure to record associations makes them almost valueless from a psychological standpoint." He obviates this difficulty by assuming that in the primitive "repression is only skin deep" and by substituting in the culture-pattern dreams cultural associations.

WALTER DYK

Harvard Psychological Clinic

Die Deutsche Volkskunde. Ed. by ADOLF SPAMER. Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut, 2nd ed., 2 vols., 1934 and 1935. Pp. 632, 600. RM 35.00.

Handbuch der deutschen Volkskunde. Ed. by WILHELM PESSLER. Potsdam: Akademische Verlagsgesellschaft Athenaion, 1936. Vol. I, pp. 324. RM 34.00.

Deutsches Brauchtum im Lebenslauf. By EDUARD CRASS. 1935. Pp. 62.

Deutsches Brauchtum im Jahreslauf. By EDUARD CRASS. 1935. Pp. 63.

Bauernmalerei. By JOSEPH MARIA RITZ. 1935. Pp. 58.

Deutsche Volkstrachten. By OSWALD A. ERICH. 1934. Pp. 55.

Osterbräuche. By FRIEDRICH HEINZ SCHMIDT. 1936. Pp. 55.

Leipzig: Bibliographisches Institut. RM 0.90 (each).

Since 1890 German folk life has been the object of scientific study of special German organizations, first of a regionally limited character but united on a nation-wide basis in 1904. Since that time the young and promising science has gained more and more general notice and recognition and has found its expression in an increasingly large number of important, works and collections, dealing with superstition (1927), fairy tales (1931), folks songs (since 1914), a bibliography, and an atlas of German folk life (since 1927). In 1934, the establishment of the National Association for German Folk Research (*Reichsgemeinschaft der Deutschen Volksforschung*) through the Emergency Association of German Science (*Notgemeinschaft der Deutschen Wissenschaft*) gave a new impetus to unified research along these lines.

The director of the department Folk Life of the *Reichsgemeinschaft*, Dr. Adolf Spamer, has edited the two large volumes of the *Deutsche Volkskunde* here under review. Beginning the work with an essay on the nature and task ahead of this science, his introduction is followed by some thirty chapters, each by a specialist, on the history of German *Volkskunde*, its relation to comparative folklore, history of human migrations and settlements, pre-historic questions, mores, medicine, dialects, legends, fairy tales,

riddles, songs and other forms of music, dance, plays and other forms of literature, artistic expressions of folk life through the media of wood, clay, textiles, metals, architecture, and costumes; its relation to law, pedagogy, religion, etc. The final chapter of volume I gives a complete list of German professors both in Germany and neighboring countries who teach German folk life courses either full-time or part-time; also of private and public organizations interested along the same lines.

Volume II contains supplements to the text of the first volume in the form of 730 well selected pictures and nine multi-colored plates (folk costumes). The pictures are accompanied by short explanatory texts. There are appended careful indices of the places, persons, and subject matter in the two volumes. A bibliography lists 2,600 more important works on German *Volkskunde* published since 1520, mostly but not exclusively in German. These authors are also separately indexed.

Another group of books on the same general subject and edited by Dr. Wilhelm Pessler makes its initial bow with the appearance of its volume I. Some of the collaborators of Dr. Spamer's work—and he himself—are co-operating in the making of this *Handbuch*. Besides some repetition of topics covered by Spamer's book, we find such welcome additions as folk means of transportation, industries, methods of folk-life research (including the sociological one), relation of German geography, geology, climate, economy, and tribal characteristics to *Volkskunde*, folk life in the big cities of to-day, Catholic and Protestant forms of folk piety, expressions of welcome and other greetings, forms of agricultural instruments and house utensils, peasants' ornaments, forms of settlement, names of localities, etc. Again we find excellent indices of subject matter, localities, authors, and 305 good pictures in the first volume alone (many in multi-color plates), with some 900 more to follow in subsequent volumes.

Drs. Spamer's and Pessler's works are in the main supplementary, rather than duplicating efforts. The reader and student will not care to miss either, if he can help it. These volumes constitute a very worthwhile accession to the growing literature of the field. In details future editions may show changes and some improvements—especially as the progress of this science continues—but as a whole it would seem difficult to surpass them at the present time. The pictures in both works are so numerous, well-selected, excellently reproduced and beautiful that one feels one has a miniature German folk-life museum between the covers of a few books. The American professor who cannot take his student through European museums will certainly welcome these books as indispensable mines of graphic information.

The booklets with which we conclude this review each deal with a separate topic—Folk Costumes, Easter Customs (both with multi-color plates), Peasant Painting, Folk Customs from Childhood to Grave, and Folk Customs through the Year's Seasons (the last two are edited by Dr. Spamer and part of the text and pictures are taken over from his larger book). All of them are carefully written by competent scholars and accompanied by a good selection of pertinent pictures, well reproduced. Indices

are lacking. It should be noticed especially that these small books are extremely cheap and are therefore easily accessible to individual students as well as to libraries and specialists.

JOHN BROWN MASON

Santa Ana Junior College

Naven. By GREGORY BATESON, Cambridge: The University Press, 1936.

Pp. xvii+286. \$5.00.

This is a brilliant and difficult book; not the least of its values is the view it gives of an acute theoretical mind organizing itself with respect to the data on a society and progressively isolating relevant planes of perception. The word "Naven" itself refers to a complex of behavior which exists in the Iatmul society of New Guinea; the nature of this rite, which may be crudely designated as an exchange of gifts and ceremonial acts between (male) child and mother's brother, is the central object of analysis. The behavior is studied as a sociological object, in which case it is revealed as binding the Iatmul group against disintegration—a necessary mechanism in this weakly organized, "centrifugal" society. Naven is examined also from the standpoint of cultural structure, and the various formal roles of uncle and nephew are traced. It is further surveyed as an emotional complex, and the conflicting "ethoses" which determine it are examined. The conception of "eidon"—roughly, intellectual patterning—reveals, for example, the role of dualistic thought structures in the Naven and in the further reaches of Iatmul culture. Bateson's concept of "schismogenesis," or progressive interactive differentiation, of individuals and groups, should be a valuable instrument in the analysis of conflict in social life.

The reader will find in *Naven* a book with comparatively little conventional ethnological "fact" but intense struggle with the data at hand. Challenged throughout is the bias of the European observer of a native people; it is this awareness which drives Bateson to acute selfconsciousness as to method, and has forced him to new symbols and perspectives in dealing with Iatmul life. We may put *Naven* down as an exceedingly sophisticated book.

Of defects three may be listed. The lack of a useful psychological perspective has probably distorted the cultural analysis at many points. We could wish so able a worker a more than superficial contact with the mind of Freud. There is a certain danger of playing fast and loose with the durable facts of personality and culture when one comes to regard them as mere comparative "phrasings." Finally, there is a negative side to seeing the growth of Bateson's analysis and having continuously to step around and over discarded points of view—it is bound to be confusing to many readers who will then be less accessible than they ought to the power of the final analysis.

JOHN DOLLARD

Institute of Human Relations
Yale University

Conflict and Community. A Study in Social Theory. By GEORGE SIMPSON.
New York: T. S. Simpson, 551 Fifth Ave., 1937. Pp. 107.

This is a very able theoretical analysis of the role of conflict in the community. The author distinguishes between "communal conflict" over the means to attain an end and "non-communal conflict" over differing ends. The book considers the chief theories of conflict and analyzes community and non-community conflict and

the elements which go to make up the community. The author finds from his study that war, imperialism, and capitalism all militate against the integration of community, and result in thwarting the basic need of the individual for community. The author could well have afforded to go into the subjects of war and revolution more exhaustively. His distinction between communal and non-communal revolutions is by no means clear.

As in the case of so many dissertations for the doctorate, the treatment suffers by an almost complete absence of illustrative material. Theory without concrete example is not as effective as it might be. The result is that the work is of less value to the sociologist. Nevertheless, it deserves to be read by all who are vitally interested in community concepts of conflict.

JEROME DAVIS

New Haven

Social Origins. By EVA J. ROSS. New York: Sheed and Ward, 1936. Pp. 112. \$1.25.

This small work, the substance of a short series of summer school lectures given by the author, is intended as a popular introduction to the field of primitive social evolution. It covers rapidly the early development, and to a certain extent the origin of the family, the state, private property, and religion. It is based in the main on second-hand sources, mostly excellent ones, and contains many well-chosen quotations therefrom. As a result, the reader runs across much very sane and sober anthropology scattered through the pages of *Social Origins*, particularly in the sections devoted to critiques of defunct unilinearism, to a revival of one form of which Briffault has recently labored with such maternal solicitude. But Dr. Ross, like many another sociologist who has ventured without technical preparation to write on the larger and more tangled questions of cultural anthropology, has made many egregious errors of fact and of inference, and has accepted as more or less established many conclusions that still rest on the weakest of anthropological evidence. At that, however, her introduction to social origins is appreciably better than a great many of the introductory chapters on social origins that appear in current college textbooks in sociology—if this is not praising it with faint damns

JOHN M. COOPER

Catholic University of America

Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies. By LEON C. MARSHALL and RACHEL MARSHALL Goetz. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1936. Pp. 252.

This volume, the thirteenth report sponsored by the *Commission on the Social Studies*, is at once a theory as to the nature of society and an approach to curriculum making in the schools. It is also the culmination of the senior author's interest in integrating the social studies, an interest that reaches back to his *Story of Human Progress* and related books.

Granting that the purpose of education is "the preparation of youth for effective participation in an evolving society," how is this to be achieved? Current approaches, such as the traditional special subject—history, economics, etc.—are canvassed, as are also the approaches made in the fusion social science course, courses in the problems of the day, and in social institutions. All have merit but all are rejected in favor of an inclusive social process approach.

In brief, the social process approach groups our multifarious human activities into six great kinds of basic social activities: adjustment to the physical world, biological continuation, human motivation, the agencies of social organization, cultural continuity, and personality shaping. Nine of the eleven chapters are devoted to a discussion of these six processes. Their aim is to demonstrate the validity and practicality of the point of view advanced.

In the reviewer's judgment, this plan of study has much to recommend it. It gives perspective on the full range of human history. It views human experience as an ongoing process of adjustment, and it educates, not for an acceptance of the *status quo*, but for participation in social life with an intent to control. It is never utopian and indoctrinaire, but realistic and scholarly. The one fatal handicap to its immediate use in reorienting the social studies is the fact that teachers are not trained to take such a comprehensive view of man's historic past and present problems.

LLOYD ALLEN COOK

Ohio State University

Social Work Year Book, 1937. Ed. by RUSSELL H. KURTZ. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1937. Pp. 709. \$4.00.

The much-abused adjective "indispensable" is the *mot juste* as a one-word review of this cyclopedia: for social workers, of course, but also for sociologists concerned with the socius and the social environment in the here and now. This fourth edition maintains the high standards set by its predecessors under the editorship of Fred S. Hall, now retired.

Part I consists of topical articles, preceded by a topical classification. New articles in this edition reflect changes in the field since 1933, especially in public welfare: Civil Service Merit System, Civilian Conservation Corps, Financing Public Social Work, Old Age Insurance, Organized Unemployed, Resettlement, Social Security Act, Work Relief; Co-ordinating Councils, Crime Prevention and Treatment, Life Insurance Adjustment, National Associations in Social Work, Self-Help Cooperatives, Social Group Work, and Trade Unionism in Social Work. Not only social work proper, but also related fields of health, education, religion, and so forth, "where the practitioners of the neighboring field are significantly associated with social workers in the performance of a social service to a common client or group of clients," are covered. Excellent bibliographies and frequent cross references aid the reader.

Part II includes directories of agencies classified as national and state, public and private, designating public state agencies administering phases of the Social Security program. The index covers both agencies and the topical articles.

DAVID K. BRUNER

University of Pittsburgh

Social Treatment in Probation and Delinquency. By PAULINE V. YOUNG. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937. Pp. xxxvi+464. \$4.00.

The author subtitles this book "Treatise and Casebook for Court Workers, Probation Officers and Other Child Welfare Workers." Verily it seems to be an encyclopaedia! The book is divided into four general topics as follows:—The social case study of unadjusted youth and parents; legal aspects of probation, individualization of justice, socialization of court procedure; dynamics of social therapy in

the work with unadjusted youth and parents; and utilization of community resources in the work of unadjusted youth and parents.

Obviously, any one of these topics could provide material for a full size book. However, in 625 pages Dr. Young reviews again the complexities of juvenile delinquency, and the various and sundry concepts of its causes and cure.

Emphasis is placed on the sociological approach. The contribution of community factors in causation, parent-child relationships, the school, the Church, recreation, the police and co-ordinating councils are discussed in relation to the delinquent child. The widely varying standards in juvenile courts, the administration, methodology and objectives of probation are reviewed. Liberal use is made of quotations from other writers, students and practitioners in the field. Often this material, some good, some bad, some current, some obsolete is injected into the text at its face value without any interpretation or evaluation of its present significance or worth.

The result is that the person familiar with the field finds comparatively little that is new in the book, while the novice is exposed to much that is unsound with no guide posts to warn him. However, as a text book, if used under competent direction the book has definite possibilities. It presents in one volume a birdseye view of delinquency, its possible causes and accompanying factors. It describes and relates the various types of agencies, institutions and procedures devised in various communities to deal with the problem.

The inclusion of 33 case histories illustrating the whole gamut of offenses offers concrete material for evaluating the validity and competence of some present methods of treating delinquency. These case histories have definite teaching value, but unfortunately, the presentation of the material is often so scattered through the book as to test the patience of a Sherlock Holmes in finding the denouement.

Dr. Young arrives at no particularly new conclusions, but rather in compendium form presents some of the past and current thinking on various aspects of the problem of delinquency. As such her book will have value as a condensed reference. Moreover, the bibliographies and questions at the ends of chapters are quite useful. However, one might wish that much of the time spent in gathering material for so large a volume had been used in pioneering in the less explored areas of delinquency.

AGNES C. SULLIVAN

New York Probation Examiner

The School in American Society. By S. HOWARD PATTERSON, ERNEST A. CHOATE, and EDMUND DE S. BRUNNER. Scranton: International Textbook Company, 1936. Pp. 570+xii. \$3.00.

This is the first volume of a new series, the *Modern School Series*. It is intended for use as a text in courses in education or educational sociology. The authors of this book are already well and favorably known, but the work under review will probably not add to their reputation.

The authors have succeeded fairly well in their announced intention to blend thoroughly the two related subjects, education and sociology. Successive "units" deal with the topics civilization and education, education and culture patterns, school systems of Europe and America, current educational problems of a dynamic society, social activities of the modern school, educational aspects of other social institutions, and education as a conserving and as a progressive force. Because of the scope of these topics, it was possible for the authors to give only partial treatment to each one, but they have selected their materials well and presented them skillfully. They have managed to introduce a certain amount of sociology into their

discussion, somewhat less of education. An excellent feature of the book is the set of Quotation Problems given at the end of each chapter as an aid to the teacher in arousing discussion.

The general intellectual tone of the work is certainly not unduly high. One wonders whether it would not be better for prospective teachers to have a little raw meat once in a while instead of this constant diet of canned, strained vegetables. Bibliographical references are not sufficiently detailed to encourage the student to read. A number of illustrations have been included for some reason, but it is difficult to discover the principles which governed their selection. Many of the captions attached to these illustrations are objectionably moralistic and sentimental.

WILLARD WALLER

Barnard College

Adult Education in Action. Edited by MARY L. ELY. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1936. Pp. 480+xx. \$2.75.

Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, 1936. Edited by DOROTHY ROWDEN. New York: American Association for Adult Education, 1936. Pp. 423+xi. \$2.25.

The books here under review are publications of the American Association for Adult Education. Both are impressive products of a movement which derives its extraordinary vitality from its relation to the aspirations of the common man.

Adult Education in Action contains material of considerable interest to the sociologist. From the trenchant introduction by Charles A. Beard to the critical papers by Pfeffer and Johnson, it is packed with vivid sketches and penetrating analyses of human life. The book is a compilation of some one hundred and sixty articles that have previously appeared in the *Journal of Adult Education*, but none the less it has a certain unity, in part because of the skill of the editor, and in part because of an underlying unity of conception in the papers. In spite of numerous important omissions noted by the editor, the book covers a vast segment of the whole field of adult education. The sociologist who wishes to learn what adult education really means in terms of group processes and human situations must not fail to read this volume.

The *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States, 1936* is composed of a number of brief and relatively formal sketches of the programs and the work of various agencies in the field of adult education; in accordance with policies established by the handbook of 1934, agencies whose work is conducted for profit have been excluded. Together with its sister volume, this book raises the question why this fertile and significant field has not been more extensively cultivated by sociologists. Perhaps there is an idea here for our committee on opportunities for trained sociologists.

WILLARD WALLER

Barnard College

The Teacher and Society. The First Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1937. Pp. vii+360. \$2.50.

This work is edited by William H. Kilpatrick of Teachers College and written by him in collaboration with John Dewey and seven others. It is a study of the position of education and the teacher in American society today from the standpoint of the "progressivists." It contains much excellent material on the role of education in a democracy and on the teacher as person, teacher and citizen. The extensive questionnaire material in Chapter VIII on the social attitudes and information of Amer-

ican teachers is instructive. American teachers are obviously, as a body, not deeply concerned about social trends. The work is frequently propagandistic, manifesting undue alarm lest the fascists gobble us all up, identifying as "liberal" whatever is antagonistic to the "interests" or favorable to trade unions, and holding before the reader as the mythical utopia the truly free society of the future when everything will be done by sweetly serene co-operative socialist-democratic methods—and in which, incidentally, the teachers will have made themselves one of the chief "interests" by having a union of their own affiliated with the labor movement.

FRANK H. HANKINS

Smith College

The Hill Country of Northern New England: Its Social and Economic History 1790-1930. By HAROLD F. WILSON. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. xv+455. \$4.25.

The Rural Exodus in Czechoslovakia. By H. BÖKER and F. W. VON BÜLOW. Geneva: International Labour Office. Studies and Reports. Series K, #13. London: P. S. King, 1935. Pp. iv+170.

Die Wanderungsbewegung im Kanton Basel-Stadt Seit 1911, insbesondere die Wanderungen Erwerbstätiger Personen 1933 und 1934. Mitteilungen des Statistischen Amtes des Kantons Basel-Stadt, #57. Basel: Zbinden und Hügin, 1935. Pp. 55.

La Mobilità della Popolazione all'Interno delle Città Europee. By R. BACHI. Rome: Castaldi, n.d. [1934]. Pp. li+502.

Here are four studies of migration; each is competently done and yields a considerable increase in our knowledge; yet each leaves one asking many questions which he feels should have been answered by the author.

Dividing the one hundred forty years of Hill Country history into four nearly equal periods, Wilson presents a searching analysis of the attempts to maintain an equilibrium of population, standard of living, and resources in a constantly changing economic system. Types of production, institutional structure, and markets of each period are described as a background for the changes in this structure and the resulting population shifts. Excepting Goodrich's work on a somewhat different problem, no study of equal scope exists for America. Particularly valuable is the picture of the adjustments to encroaching industrialism. A sociologist would appreciate more attention to non-economic institutional adjustments than this generous author provides, more personal-history material on the process of adjustment to the rapid changes, more detailed population data, and the story of the spread of feasible adjustments.

Böker and Bülow consider a similar problem more briefly. Following a description of the economic structure of Czechoslovakia before and just after independence, a careful survey of agrarian reform measures and the resulting changes in farm holdings introduces a lengthy analysis of migrations, especially in South Bohemia where such movements were of unusual importance. They then relate the migrations to the changing industrial and agricultural conditions.

The Basle bulletin is a routine, though unusually complete summary of inward and outward mobility. The tables classify the data for each year according to sex, origin or destination, seasonal fluctuations, family status, and occupation. The relative contribution of migration and natural increase to city growth at different times during the period covered, the shifting predominance of in- and out-movements, and the changing geographical sources of population all receive attention.

Bachi should receive honors for one of the most complete studies of a limited problem in the whole literature of sociology. Although he apparently undertook the study mainly as a guide to real-estate bureaucracies in European governments, it is illuminating for sociologists. His problem is to portray the shifts in domiciles within the principal European cities. Prefacing his work with an acute theoretical analysis of the nature and causes of these moves, he then presents a model table of the data available for each city and the sources of the data. Many pages are devoted to deriving the several statistical indices to be used. Two hundred tables and cautious interpretation of their significance furnish the basis for his conclusions on innumerable aspects of intra-urban mobility, including: temporal, including seasonal, changes in mobility; the sex, age, and marital rates; differential mobility of social classes and occupations; the interchange of population among the districts of the city, the varying rates in different types of areas, and the role of these changes in the total process of city-building. Not least in significance is his clear demonstration of the uniformity in the pattern of mobility in every city. American human ecologists will be gratified and envious in reading this volume; it verifies so many of their conclusions based on more meager data and on hunches, but it sets a standard of statistical verification unapproached here. Despite unstinting praise for Bachi's work one hopes for studies which include his type of data and the richer, non-demographic materials available in American studies.

C. ARNOLD ANDERSON

Iowa Experiment Station

Youth Serves the Community. By PAUL R. HANNA. Introduction by William H. Kilpatrick. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1936.

Education for living in and maintaining a democracy is the challenge that the unrest, insecurity, and skepticism about the economic system have hurled at educators in America during recent years. Progressive educators are struggling to meet the challenge. This book is one attempt.

Fundamental to progressive education (the book is a publication of the Progressive Education Association) is the theory that living and learning are essentially one. Consequently community co-operative activities in which the young, sometimes in co-operation with the old, grapple with common problems constitute the heart of education because through such endeavors the individual masters his facts, relates his facts, that is, thinks and lastly, acts.

The greater portion of this volume is devoted to reports of community work in process or completed by youth and children. Data were gathered from all parts of the world by letters, reports, and personal interviews by means of funds granted by the WPA to provide workers for the research project. School people were the chief sources of information though leaders in such agencies as the Boy Scouts and 4-H clubs were consulted.

Many examples of childhood and youth projects are given. In one place the project was to make the community a safe place to live through safety campaigns and in another by the spread of general information for fire prevention. Boys and girls and young people have here and there grappled with the problems of attaining better health, agricultural improvement, and the stimulation of pride in beautification of public and private places and the writing of local history. Some space is given to the youth movements in other lands, but with a warning that they may not be fully educational.

The publication propounds the theory of progressive education and provides examples to illustrate the theory. The book is not profound but it is a worthwhile study.

It assumes perhaps too much for the school unless the school can become a regenerated institution. But who takes the leadership is not so important as that real leadership be assumed in order that youth may more generally initiate and spread co-operative community activities.

BRUCE L. MELVIN

WPA

Washington, D. C.

Die Sklaverei. Ein wirtschaftliches, soziales und kulturelles Problem. By ROBERT PFAFF-GIESBERG. Stuttgart: Strecker und Schroeder Verlag, 1935. Pp. 84. RM 1.60.

This unpretentious booklet of the young ethnologist of the Stuttgart museum seems at first quite readable. The author neglects to give a bibliography; however, his pamphlet does not pretend to give any new insight into the problem of cultural significance of the institution of slavery. Well-known facts are presented in a popular way, and it is the kind of study one would lay aside without getting new inspirations if one were not finally startled on the last page by some amazing statements. So, you look from the last page to the first to find out that the booklet was printed in the Germany of 1935.

The last chapter deals with the significance of slavery for human culture as a whole. In this chapter the author felt himself urged to pay his tribute to the spirit of the totalitarian state in which he lives. The more, since that government prescribes to the anthropologists, too, what they have to believe, to teach, and to write. Consequently, the author comes to the following final statement of his investigation:

"Without slavery, even in a degenerated, oppressive and mournful form, the course and rhythm of history would certainly appear as a sequence of unbearable monotony." Concerning China the author regrets that the moderation of the social institution of slavery there has produced a cultural stagnation. He concludes his book with the following sentence: "Real extreme slavery always involves the danger of moral disintegration, of ethical brutalization, and of physical and psychic breakdown, at least so far as the slave-holders are concerned—and in this sense slavery may rightfully be considered an institution destroying the state."

JULIUS E. LIPS

Howard University

Magie und Mystik Gegensatz und Zusammengang. By N. FERGER. Zürich und Leipzig: Max Niehans, 1935. Pp. 252. RM 6.60.

Magic and mysticism are conceived as an irrational contemplation, experience, or living with the facts of nature. Because magic is akin to religion in so far as it deals with the supernatural, there is antagonism between them. Most of the book is occupied with an account of mysticism in the major historical religions—Buddhism, Taoism, and the Mediterranean religions, including Christianity and Mohemmedanism, with some remarks on recent mysticisms—for example, Christian Science and New Thought. Scant attention is given the famous Christian mystics, although they are not entirely neglected. The subject is treated from the psychological angle rather than the cultural or historical, and no attempt is made to classify types. Religious mysticism is considered essentially a method for communication with God.

WILSON D. WALLIS

University of Minnesota

Die Sozialphilosophie der Stoa (Philologus, Supplementband XXVIII, Heft 5). By ELEUTERIO ELORDUY. Leipzig: Dieterich'sche, 1936. Pp. xii+268. RM 13.50.

This learned and well-documented treatise, originally submitted as a doctoral dissertation to the University of Munich, does not at all fulfill the promise of its title, for the greater part of it is devoted to a sketch of the metaphysical system of the Stoics, on the basis of a detailed philological analysis. Indeed, the author explicitly disavows at the outset any intention of touching on extra-philosophical considerations, which he relegates to the historian of culture. After a close examination of the categories of Varro's schematic summary of Stoicism, to which he attributes a rather unwarranted importance, the concepts of personality and cognition are scrutinized, a procedure the author apparently regards as the best approach to Stoic social philosophy. Only with the second section do we come to the generically social theory of the Stoics, and this is followed by a concluding section on religion. In the social section, there are briefly considered the relation of Stoicism to the older city-state, and its doctrines concerning collective sentiments, education, love, friendship, women and slavery.

The author's unhistorical point of view is evident even in the purely philological sections in his somewhat strained construction of various concepts through telescoping into a composite scheme a number of similar doctrines by authors widely separated in time. But this fault is particularly impressive in the treatment of the social philosophy. Inadequate attention is paid to the social setting of the Stoic doctrines. Hence but little light is afforded on such crucial questions as the reasons for the emergence of the Stoa, the difference between the three common chronological divisions of Stoicism, and its crucial tenets of "apathy" and cosmopolitanism. There is no treatment of a point that would be of interest to all students of sociological epistemology, namely, the Stoic doctrine of common ideas (*koinai ennoiai*); and the stimulating *aperçu* concerning the indebtedness of Augustine to the Stoic tradition, with the resultant problem in diffusion, does not go beyond the point of suggestion. The internal arrangement of the book is somewhat confused; however it has a bibliography (predominantly philological) and an index.

EFHRAIM FISCHOFF

Pennsylvania State College

Adolf von Harnack. By AGNES VON ZAHN-HARNACK. Berlin-Tempelhof: Hans Bött Verlag, 1936. Pp. 577. RM 8.

Adolf von Harnack was one of the most influential and most representative men of social sciences in Wilhelminian Germany. His scholarly fame rests on his *Lehrbuch der Dogmengeschichte* and his *Die Mission und Ausbreitung des Christentums in den ersten drei Jahrhunderten*, but his importance reaches far beyond the scholarly world. He represented the generation which was still rooted in the world of German idealistic philosophy, in that peaceful Germany of the beginning of the nineteenth century, when the economically and politically weak and backward country excelled by its thinkers and poets, and which devoted its life and its cultural energies to the creation and growth of an entirely different Germany, the Germany of the end of the nineteenth century. Then, as this book puts it on the occasion of a celebration on the New Year's Eve of 1901, "*im öffentlichen und politischen Leben Deutschlands drängte alles nach Ausweitung. 'Dem grösseren Deutschland, der grösseren Flotte' galt daher der Trinkspruch, den der Nachbar Max Delbrueck dem neuen Jahrhundert entgegenrief*" (p. 292). The present biography of Harnack, written by his daughter, gives a rich and valuable picture of society in Germany during the eighty years of

Harnack's life. The book is written in an easy and pleasant style. None wishing to acquaint himself with the better sides of German thought and society before the World War should miss this book.

HANS KOHN

Smith College

Government Aid during the Depression to Professional, Technical and Other Service Workers. By the Division of Professional and Service Projects under the Works Progress Administration, May 1936. Pp. 75.

Few publications in this recent year have so clearly shown the deep gap between the "public opinion" of those who monopolize public opinion and the real opinion of the American public than this government memorandum.

According to an emotional view represented by certain sections of society, service work, art, music, and education are not essentials of life and destitute persons of these professions should be disciplined by manual labor. This point of view is destructive to all cultural progress and contrasts greatly with the actual aspirations of the larger part of American society. The popular success of the Federal theatre, art, and educational projects has proven that the need is vital. On the other hand the difficulties which these projects have encountered, show us that the grip on American life of those groups upholding a standard of values measured exclusively by profits, does not relax easily.

In March 1935, there were about 560,000 white-collar or service workers of all kinds on the relief rolls. They constituted about 10% of all relief workers. Among them were 82,000 professional and technical workers. Their relief wages varied from \$27.70 to a maximum of \$100 a month. For this pittance they have given us first-class symphony orchestras, musical education, excellent theatrical performances, a wealth of paintings and sculpture, free education in many fields, historical research, and a variety of other intellectual products.

A new era of mass culture was initiated in America, the effects of which will remain with us much longer than the memories of the inadequate relief so grudgingly accorded to those who have created this cultural rebirth. Even those who are skeptical towards government statistics and want to discount some of the related successes must admit—prompted by their own experience—that from a sociological point of view the professional projects should not be looked upon as relief burden assumed by society but as one of the most decisive steps towards a new popular culture in America. The success of these projects is a rebuke to those who do not want to give culture to the people who cannot afford to pay for it and who want to buy for their own exclusive use a part—and destroy the majority—of the creative talents called forth by urgent popular need.

ANDRÉE EMERY

New York

After the New Deal, What? By NORMAN THOMAS. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. 233. \$1.00.

Norman Thomas has given us in the latest annual edition of his views the most cogent and complete exposition of the socialist position that he has recently written. It includes valuable factual material on the New Deal, which he says is now over, and also on the current economic, political and international situations. The chapters on fascism, communism, and dynamic forces of change seem somewhat colored by the official policies and prejudices of his party; but the one on socialism is so clear and logical as to be good material for pamphleteering.

Comparing the present work with Thomas's *As I See It*, published in the campaign year of 1932, one can see that Thomas has grown greatly in the scope of his thinking. In the earlier work he devoted most of his space to a long diatribe against the necessity of violence in social change, a plea to Christians to become socialists, and a summary of the Seabury investigation of graft in New York; only one casual passing reference was made to Hitler and fascism. In the current volume he devotes much of his space to fascism, but approaches it somewhat fatalistically.

Thomas says that fascism will be inevitable when the next war or depression arrives in America, unless the Socialist movement reaches such proportions as to stop it. In view of the 187,720 votes cast for Thomas in the election last year, this is certainly a counsel of despair. Thomas says that the issue of the election was capitalism versus the coöperative commonwealth, but popular opinion did not see it that way. Thomas says that the Socialists will support a Farmer-Labor Party "of the right sort," meaning that it must be based on production-for-use or similar semi-socialistic theory, although it seems obvious that such a left-wing orientation at the start would not attract the necessary following to enable a new party to win. Thomas severely criticizes the program adopted by the Chicago Farmer-Labor Conference called by the Minnesota group last Spring; yet he admits that the Socialists refused to participate in that meeting.

Thomas's somewhat emotional attitude toward the Communists is quite natural in view of the ribbings he has taken from them in past years, and many of his criticisms of the new Communist "line" as it has appeared in the last two years are probably sound. But one cannot help but wonder if the Socialist Party with all its self-righteousness is not headed for the sectarian left-wing position occupied by the Communists themselves for so many years. If so, Norman Thomas soon will find that he is talking chiefly to himself, and that would be too bad for a man of his intelligence and appeal.

SELDEN C. MENEFEE

University of Washington

America's Heritage from John Stuart Mill. By GEORGE MORLAN. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. 209. \$2.00.

This incisive little book is one of sociology in the older and sounder connotation of that term. Mill is most often thought of as a political economist, but the range of his thought, as indicated by this analysis of the latter-day "heritage" from him, covered "Economic Doctrines," Chapter I; "Social Psychology," Chapter II; "The State," Chapter III; "Social Change," Chapter IV; "Liberal Education," Chapter V. Perhaps, indeed, it is this comprehensiveness of view which constitutes the essence of his "liberalism."

Mill's thought was an acid, etching out the lines of a sane and sound "liberal" social philosophy in a period when there was not enough separation of economy from state, etc.; and not enough distinctions being made in thinking through the various aspects of the social order. Morlan here clearly indicates Mill's vital logical function.

America has taken the "heritage" of English institutions and English thought and in the freedom of a new world, has separated and distinguished, specialized and individualized, their logic into illogic; the "liberalism" of a "socialism" like Mill's, has become the "liberty" of an "individualism" accounting all comprehensive and liberal "planning" as "regimentation." Education has become "liberal" in exactly the opposite sense to that which Mill suggested, for thinking is as essentially comprehensive as it is intensive. The high differentiation of aspects in

American life and institutions necessarily and growingly gives the latter emphasis to American thinking and education. America then, has not done well by its heritage from John Stuart Mill. "Liberalism in America" (Chapter VI) has culminated in "independence" rather than in "interdependence" (p. 136). A philosophy of "rugged individualism" in a metropolitan economy is so anomalous as to be the very negation of "liberal" thinking. On the other hand, "regimentation" and "planning" work sharply "against the grain" which is an outgrowth of our national history and the very fibre of "Americanism." America's heritage from England is carried to its super-expression here and ends—as now, in the current issues before the nation—in an illogical welter of social, economic, educational, and political arrangements and ideas, which is the very antithesis of the "liberalism" which is "America's Heritage from John Stuart Mill."

It is rather too bad that Morlan's timely clarification was not before the thinking public in America while the present political crisis was in its more formative stages.

WILLIAM L. BAILEY

Northwestern University

Scientific Interests in the Old South. By THOMAS CARY JOHNSON, JR. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1936. Pp. vii+214. \$2.50.

Louisiana State University, 1860-1896. By WALTER L. FLEMING. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1936. Pp. x+499. \$2.50.

Johnson's book is indeed remarkable for the minuteness and thoroughness of detail of its research. Apparently the author has gone into almost every corner of the South and has shown himself a master at locating and digging out the data bearing on the early history of the physical and biological sciences that have long been forgotten. As one who has been over much of the same territory looking for early social science data, I can testify to the labor and persistence—to say nothing of the generous stenographic and financial aid that someone must have provided—that has been involved in this work. True to his traditional pattern of historical research, there is little generalization in the book, and what there is inheres mainly in such chapter headings as In College Halls, Among the People, Sweet Southern Girls, The Glory that Was Charleston, and The Glamor that Was New Orleans. There is almost nothing directly about trends, general movements, background conditions and causes, general sources, etc. All this wealth of materials is dumped into the pages with only chapter divisions and time sequences for guidance to perception and in forming a composite picture of what happened in the Old South between 1790 and 1860. But it is very impressive; almost startlingly so.

Fleming's narrative is a social rather than an intellectual history. Briefly it brings the story of higher education up from colonial times to the State Seminary period at Alexandria (after 1845), the presidency of W. T. Sherman, the removal to Baton Rouge and the transformation into a university, the hard times during reconstruction and the panic of the middle 'seventies, the rejuvenescence due to the Morrill funds, the growth of the new university in the 'eighties and the expansion of the 'nineties. The personnel of the faculty receives considerable attention and the presidents—especially the Boyds and Col. William Preston Johnston (son of Albert Sidney)—are thrown into bold relief. There is also much interesting incident regarding the student body, and their mores. The social sciences were largely conspicuous for the neglect of them, but there was some approach to sociology through the philosophy of history and moral philosophy. It is regrettable that the

death of the author prevented this interesting story of education in the old south from being brought down to date, thus covering the recent important growth of the university.

L. L. BERNARD

Washington University

The State and the Church. By JOHN A. RYAN and MOORHOUSE F. X. MILLAR. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1936. Pp. vi+331. \$2.50.

Der autoritäre Staat. By ERICH VOEGELIN. Vienna: Verlag von Julius Springer, 1936. Pp. iv+289. RM 13.80.

The age-old controversy between Church and State exists in modern society as well as in medieval, under democracy as under various forms of autocracy. In one form or another, we may say, it is constantly with us.

The book under review sets forth the teaching of the Roman Catholic Church on the subject. The first chapter includes "the most authoritative doctrine that we possess regarding the nature, authority, and object of the state, and the relations that should subsist between the State and the Church" (p. V), in the form of the encyclical "The Christian Constitution of States" of Leo XIII. Much in the remainder of the book is the interpretation and application of the traditional and authoritative doctrine by the present writers and editors who are, of course, known as eminent American social scientists. As an authoritative expression of the views and teachings of the Catholic Church, presented and defended in a scholarly and masterful way by two outstanding churchmen, the work is indispensable to Catholic and non-Catholic students alike.

The book contains, however, a number of defects. The print is not much to be proud of, as far as the publishers are concerned; it makes reading difficult. The index is good as far as it goes, which is about one-third as far as it should. Another defect, however, is much more serious. The book was first published in 1922, and in 1936 it was reprinted, apparently without the slightest change or addition. Since 1922 Fascism and National Socialism have risen but they are not mentioned in the book. In Austria, a "Christian Corporative State" has been set up which, according to its adherents, follows the tenets laid down in the encyclicals *Rerum Novarum* and *Quadregesimo Anno* but which to others looks like another dictatorship, this time by a politico-religious group. A number of students have attacked the problem of what authoritarian régimes stand for in regard to the "Church and State" problem but because Italy, Austria, and Portugal are predominantly Catholic countries we should like to have such eminent Catholic writers as the present authors give us the benefit of their reasoned views. For example, Mgr. Ryan speaks out for the right to existence of trade unions and speaks of their prohibition by a State as "tyranny and absolutism." Is it such in the Christian Corporative State of Austria?

No one would accuse or suspect Mgr. Ryan of favoring Fascism; but are there not sins of omission in publishing a book that may weigh as heavily as sins of commission?

Lacking information in English, let us now see what an Austrian scholar has to say about the authoritarian state on a "Christian" basis. Professor Voegelin of the University of Vienna sets himself the task of describing "the total complexity of the Austrian state problem." In doing so, he also makes the "attempt to overcome the 'administrative' concept of Austrian constitutional law and to design, instead, a 'political' concept,"—an admittedly difficult task which the author himself does not expect to have quite successfully handled (pp. 4, 6). He sees and attacks four

sets of problems: (1) an examination of the meaning of the "political symbols" *authoritarian* and *totalitarian*; (2) an analysis of the political situations in the old and the new Austria; (3) an examination of the essentials of old and modern Austrian constitutional theories. The description and analysis of the new authoritarian constitutional law of Austria, since 1934, finally forms the main part (IV) of the book. Extended reference is here made to related historical projects advanced in Great Britain and France.

In his criticism of older Austrian constitutional theories and in advancing his own ideas the author leans heavily, and admittedly, upon such French theorists as Renan and Maurice Hauriou. The study is hardly as objective, however, as the author would like to believe (p. iv); his anti-democratic disposition is very plain (e.g., on pp. 51, 93-95, 218-219). It might also prove difficult for non-authoritarian scholars to digest statements like the following: "The legal interpretation of the Federal government [in regard to its power to impose a new, authoritarian constitution on the country in alleged violation of the old constitution] was valid constitutional law; legal science had to record the historical fact"; and "The Federal government had become the supreme law and constitution-giver for Austria, and it was such in a legitimate way, for it had made its way and was sufficiently supported by its means of physical force and the *consentement coutumier* of the population" (p. 171). The study is written largely in the complicated style for which the German language can be so easily abused. A good appended bibliography covers only Part III, but ample references and quotations are found throughout the book in footnotes. An index is lacking.

On the whole, Dr. Voegelin's book, confronting the real issues as it does, is stimulating and thought-provoking, for which qualities we are thankful in spite of the necessary criticisms mentioned.

JOHN BROWN MASON

Santa Ana Junior College

In the Shadow of Tomorrow. By J. HUIZINGA, New York: W. W. Norton and Co. 1936. Pp. 239. \$2.50.

This book abounds in absolutized values, and in implicit moralistic and religious apologetics. Its author seems bewildered, confused, and depressed by the transitional chaos of our time; and while he has processed his material to a certain extent, he has not subjected it to a sufficiently persistent and incisive processual analysis nor set his trends in a sufficiently wide perspective to give scientific credibility to most of his generalizations. Very little, either by way of factual evidence or of the convergence of systematic theoretical evidence is given to support his statements; and the book is written in literary and journalistic fashion. In spite of these drawbacks, quite a number of the author's observations are sociologically sound and portions of the work are quite stimulating. But, in the absence of a greater marshalling of proof, the distinction between what is and what is not sound depends almost entirely upon the reader having a sufficient background to be able to tell the difference; and for a reader with such a background, most any book provides a certain stimulation, if only in the form of counter-irritation. His conception of culture as involving an integral framework of meaning and a certain balance of values has some value, however; and he does make some telling though not altogether consistent thrusts at Naziism. The book is without index.

JAMES W. WOODARD

Temple University

Machine Politics in New Orleans, 1897-1926. By GEORGE M. REYNOLDS. New York: Columbia University Press (Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, No. 421), 1936. Pp. 245. \$3.25.

There has been an unfortunate tendency in the United States, both on the part of scholars and laymen, to view machine politics and politicians as peculiar phenomena having little relation to society in general. Reynolds bases his study, which centers around the Choctaw Club of New Orleans, on the thesis that political machines and bosses grow out of their environment and cannot be understood without a knowledge of the life and institutions of the communities in which they are found. The Choctaw Club, which boasted fairly of speaking for the Democrats of New Orleans during most of the years from 1897 to 1926, largely came out of a racial struggle involving an attempt to bring the Negroes back into politics. Although it perfected an admirable organization based on familiar ward and precinct lines and enjoyed the unusually able leadership of Martin Behrman, it could scarcely have succeeded for so long had it not been for an intimate relation with important economic and social groups and a quite faithful reflection of the traditions of the city.

Although the study is not particularly well documented—students of practical politics will appreciate the author's explanation of the necessity of preserving the anonymity of his personal sources of material—it is in general concrete and thorough. More than that, it maintains a high degree of objectiveness. One might wish that more attention had been paid to the small group of ward leaders who with Mayor Behrman controlled the Choctaw Club and to whom Reynolds gives due credit but without much more than naming names.

In general the author concludes that the New Orleans machine resembles more than it differs from political machines elsewhere in the United States. Graft, however, seems less than is ordinarily found, to some extent because of the heavy debt charges growing out of Reconstruction days and the unusual drainage and flood control costs arising from the geography of the city. Then, too, the peculiar election machinery, designed to eliminate the Negro, brought in the one-party system, which in turn causes issues to be overshadowed by candidates. A third significant departure involves the custom of "identifying responsible machine leadership with responsible official leadership."

Is it too much to hope that similar studies of Cleveland, Memphis, Kansas City, Buffalo, San Francisco, and other cities will follow this illuminating study of New Orleans?

HAROLD ZINK

DePauw University

The Country Printer, New York State, 1785-1830. By MILTON W. HAMILTON. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. xi+361. \$3.75.

To gather material for his investigation in the pioneering stage of the country press, the author examined a number of newspaper files and library records. His research in this hitherto neglected field has resulted in an interesting account of the problems which confronted the early printer and the methods utilized to overcome them. Financial hardships encountered in raising capital to equip a plant, lack of available funds for working supplies in consequence of commodity payments for subscriptions and advertising, and difficulties involved in the distribution of newspapers were the common lot of this ambitious entrepreneur. He yielded to the dictation of policy by his sponsors. He meddled in politics for patronage and favors.

His violent political controversies entailed libel suits; and the "freedom of the press" had its early airing in the courts.

This fast-moving account, interspersed with numerous excerpts, presents a dramatic characterization of the country printer. It shows his ingenuity and unrelenting determination to survive in the face of the forces of defeat lined up against him. His venture may have started as a labor of love, but developed into a precarious, nerve-racking business undertaking. Creative literary work was in most instances limited to a few editorials. As for the finished product, his shop resembled that of the early automobile manufacturer—an assembly plant. Since local news was given but negligible space, the printer was at a loss for material when outside periodicals failed to reach him in time.

Mention is made of the proportional space allotted various categories of news. Apprenticeship relations and the status of the journeyman are adequately described. The appendix contains a list of over six hundred names of country printers, of value for future research. And, if only the author had acquainted us with the rural readers upon whom the printer was dependent and whose good-will he attempted to win, the story would be more complete. Because of this omission, one feels like a bystander who listens in on one end of the telephone conversation and tries to guess what is going on at the other.

FRANK HARRIS

Elmira College

Society and Its Problems (4th Rev. Ed.) By GROVE S. DOW. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co. 1937. Pp. vii+669. \$3.00.

This is a greatly improved introductory text in sociology and should retain its popularity among its clientele. The author never tells what he means by the term "problems" as used in the main title, however, and only by inference can it be found to mean—a social situation which should occasion apprehension to society and which requires correction by some reform measure. The sub-title claims the book to be an "Introduction to the Principles of Sociology." Again the reader is at loss. Further, one wonders how long the tendency to make the introductory text encyclopedic in nature and a general summary of all courses in sociology will continue. This text will probably impart to the alert-minded student a sense of futility in sociological study and lead the mediocre student to believe that in the one course he has learned all there is to know about sociology.

W. P. MERONEY

Baylor University

Handbook on Social Case Recording. By MARGARET COCHRAN BRISTOL. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1936. Pp. xii+219. \$1.50.

Recording, as conceived by Mrs. Bristol, is more than a process in social case work. She discusses in Part I the mechanics of presenting and securing data, the psychological elements of accuracy, objectivity, prejudice, fact, near-fact and fiction, clarity, and *verbatim* recording.

Part II concerns itself with the technique and illustrations of recording a first interview, a narrative, a summary, as well as with the writing of letters, making and recording case analyses and with the problem of the ethics involved in case, recording.

The major points stressed in recording a first interview relate to present economic conditions, previous employment, police records, delinquencies, housing, former

landladies, references, early history, relatives, siblings, bank accounts and a whole array of external data which might be called *spatial and material* data. A discussion of the essential human and inner life of the family and the group as a unity of interacting personalities, with social and personal wishes, interests, plans, attitudes, reactions, philosophy of life, and the whole complex of the cultural and social setting in which life is lived, is essentially lacking. One may even get the idea that human beings with all of their "spiritual private property" and the intricate network of social interrelationships, are largely reduced to an existence level and confined to digestive systems, employment slips, and relief records. Life—in its social, mental, emotional, and spiritual elements—as a process is not envisaged in such a record.

From the arrangement of the illustrative documents it is difficult to learn their purpose and their validity. The author would do well, since she is concerned with standards, techniques, evaluations, to present a series of "adequately" recorded documents, under varying administrative conditions and types or fields of social work, and discuss the criteria of adequacy, rather than to discuss negatively a series of brief and inadequate documents. Good records are hard to find but some are available in different types of agencies.

The author would have greatly profited by reading some such treatises as Muensterberg's *On the Witness Stand*, Charles H. Cooley's "The Roots of Social Knowledge," *American Journal of Sociology*, (July, 1926), Park and Miller's discussion of what constitutes a fact (in *Old World Traits Transplanted*), Clifford Shaw's discussion of a life history (in *The Jack-Roller*), Georg Simmel's "Sociology of Secrecy," *American Journal of Sociology*, (January, 1906), and others for a broader foundation of the psychological and sociological elements of recording a life process.

Nowhere in the book do we find a discussion of the matter of records as having a special importance as a basis for statistical studies which are needed for intelligent planning of an agency and for the guidance of its clientele.

PAULINE V. YOUNG

The School of Government
The University of Southern California

Theorie und Praxis im völkisch-sozialen Leben: Ein Beitrag zur Frage Politik oder Wissenschaft. By DR. OTTO KÜHNE. Berlin: Verlag für Staatswissenschaften und Geschichte, 1936. Pp. viii+244.

Practical politics (policies) and science are all too often divorced in real life. Dr. Kühne's central thesis is that this separation is due to a false analysis of one or both, and a failure to perceive that they have a mutual relationship in a "social-organic mode of thought." The author's first task is to show the nature of this social-organic concept of society. Like John Stuart Mill, he advances *utility* as the highest principle of *all* social life, whether political, economic, religious, or any other. This may be sought by the individual for himself, or for others, or for self and others combined; but the maximum utility ever attainable is the highest general welfare. Thus, in the last analysis, maximum utility is always related to the social whole; in which, however, the true well-being of the individual is also included.

All social life is determined by the socially significant acts of individuals, and there is a continuous interaction between the utilitarian aims of individuals, and environing social conditions. The chief subject of all social science should be an analysis of this interaction. The highest desideratum is the complete identity of

practice and sound scientific theory, in the highest possible social-organic oneness of society. The problem is to find the principle best adapted to bring this about.

Difficulty in the past has been due to the conflict between *economic* treatment (in which man is viewed as an *object*, and a *means* toward an economic end), and the *social-human* (which considers man as an end in himself). This conflict can only be resolved by considering man as an individual human being before dealing with him in his economic and political relationships.

The essence of "right" political thought and action can be found only by achieving a reconciliation of the *genetic* and the *ecological* elements of life, which are two poles of a unified whole. We must endeavor to achieve a conceptual unity of life "through a reconciliation of the mutable or dynamic, with the permanent or static elements."

The mean trend of social life is a resultant of *social adaptation* (which is life-affirming), and *social selection* (which is life-negating). The former arises from intellectual forces, the latter from natural forces. These, which correspond perfectly to the biological principles of natural selection and adaptation, constitute the basic principles which, in the last analysis, govern all existence, whether individual or collective.

Social life is produced when the positive phases exceed the negative. The fundamental problems of social politics can be solved only through a recognition of, and a provision for, these as the two motive forces of the evolutionary process upon which all life, including the social, is founded.

The foregoing line of thought is carefully and objectively developed in Part I of the volume. Its value for the greater part of the American sociological public would be greater, however, had it terminated at this point. For Part II, which deals with politics and science as the formative energies of the German "will-to-life," becomes a special pleading concerning "the triumph (*Überwindung*) over the Liberal-Marxist conception of Folk, Society, Economy, Law, State, and Civilization."

EARLE EUBANK

University of Cincinnati

The Social Aspects of the Banana Industry. By CHARLES DAVID KEPNER, JR. New York: Columbia University Press, 1936. Pp. 230. \$3.00.

The Social Aspects of the Banana Industry, a Ph.D. dissertation under Professor Samuel McCune Lindsay at Columbia university, is the second in a series of two volumes dealing with the banana industry. At best it must be characterized as a very broad and hasty survey of the field covered. Many of the data presented in the study were secured on a journey through Panama, Costa Rica, Honduras, and Guatemala made in the summer of 1930. The information gathered in this manner is supplemented with materials collected by interviews in the United States and facts gleaned from secondary sources. Soothill, a former employee of the United Fruit Company who collaborated in writing *The Banana Empire*,¹ is quoted very frequently.

The plan of the treatise is very simple, the whole being divided into eleven chapters and each chapter subdivided into from two to eleven sections. Following an introduction, Chapters II, III, and IV treat the historical phases of the subject under the titles, "Backgrounds and Pioneers," "A Generation of Expansion," and

¹ The first volume of the series, published by the Vanguard Press.

"Land Acquisition and Social Change." Chapter V considers "The Planters' Profits and Status." Then follow discussions of "Sanitation and Health," "Wages and Hours," "Social Security," "Social and Economic Conflicts," and "The Role of Organized Labor." The concluding chapter is given over to a "Summary and Conclusion." A bibliography of approximately one hundred titles and an index complete the volume. Only two illustrations, one of them a map of the Caribbean area, are included. Tables are used frequently but many of them are crudely done (see, for example, pp. 66, 67, 150).

The reviewer sought in vain for some discussion of the methodology employed in the present study. What criteria led to the selection of the facts presented? Are equally significant facts omitted? In a Ph.D. dissertation the reader has a right to expect an exposition of the methodology used.

One regrets also that the author fails almost entirely to explore the implications of the facts presented in the book. Thus he gives some data showing that work on the plantation is more unhealthy than work on the highlands (p. 119); that a constant stream of new workers is being drawn into the system, and the aged and exhausted or "used" workers are being cast aside (pp. 123, 145); that workers secure luxuries during periods of employment at the cost of a helpless lack of self-sufficiency during periods of unemployment (p. 145); that the banana communities are lacking in women and children; and that family and community ties are weak and inefficient (p. 162). All of these facts might have taken on added significance had they been related to the proposition that the banana plantation is the factory system in agriculture, for one might reasonably anticipate that its demographic and social effects would be similar to those of the factory system in industry.

T. LYNN SMITH

Louisiana State University

The Psychology of the Unadjusted School Child. By JOHN J. B. MORGAN.
New York: The Macmillan Company. 1936. Pp. 339.

Neither a penetrating analysis of social maladjustment nor a contribution to the literature of the social sciences, this revision of a book originally published in 1924 is just what it professes to be: a manual for the school teacher who is required by circumstances to deal with maladjusted children but who is, because of the professional educator's preoccupation with teaching techniques, unprepared by training to do so.

Written of necessity in the simplest of language and colored in view of its audience by implicit acceptance of conventional moral values, it nevertheless presents for the practicing teacher about as much of the findings of clinical psychology as she can be expected to understand—and possibly more than is well for her to attempt to put into practice.

The author has remained reasonably objective, has studiously avoided mysticism, and has managed to weave into his discourse a good deal of uncommon common-sense. Most of the advice and many of the explanations which he gives could, of course, have been provided by the old-fashioned grandmother. But now that grandmothers have gone out of style, such manuals as this may serve a useful purpose in providing some small measure of guidance to the amateur "parents" of modern youth.

RICHARD T. LAPIERE

Stanford University

Die deutsche Forschung nach den Ursachen der Jugendverwahrlosung in den letzten drei Jahrzehnten. (German Research into the Causes of Juvenile Delinquency in the last Three Decades) By DR. ILSE SCHULZE STEINEN. Bethel: Anstalt Bethel, 1935. Pp. 94.

The book is a rapid review of the more significant points of view, hypotheses, data, methods and conclusions of a large number of German writers in the field of juvenile delinquency. The author views these studies generally as concerned primarily with appraising the roles of constitution and situation as causative factors in delinquency. She does not believe that any final conclusive research is possible since there will always remain an "unexplainable remainder: the creative will, capacity and will to self direction, creative personality, genius. . . ." Juvenile delinquency, she believes, can be brought within certain limits through eugenic measures and the reorganization of community life, but a certain proportion of congenital defectives and "willfully delinquent" persons will continue to appear in each generation. The materials reviewed are chiefly statistical with little reference to case studies.

The book is divided into three main parts: (1) "The concepts and types of juvenile delinquency" which state the underlying philosophical assumptions of delinquency; (2) "data and methods of research"; (3) research findings. There is a significant bibliography, but no index.

There is little indication that the authors whom Dr. Steinen examined were familiar with the vast scientific literature in the field of delinquency in America.

PAULINE V. YOUNG

The University of Southern California

Le Développement Psychique de l'Enfant et de l'Adolescent. By EDOUARD PICHON. Masson & Cie., 1936. Pp. 374. 45 Fr.

This book is a curious mixture of psychology, psychoanalysis, medicine, and everyday philosophy. The author, a physician, writes his book from the point of view of a doctor engaged in the daily practice of medicine and not as a psychologist making controlled observations to learn about the course of mental development. While teachers and psychologists are not entirely left unconsidered, the book is addressed chiefly to parents, general practitioners, and pediatricians. For these last three there are many bits of advice.

The main body of the book divides itself into five parts. The first part deals with methods of diagnosis: collecting information from the family, questioning and observing the behavior of the child, using general mental tests and psychoanalytic investigations. The author, in commenting upon what apparently seems to him as the very strange idea of mental tests in general, says that such an idea could spout forth only from the head of a Yankee [Cattell]. A detailed description and painstaking criticism of a form of the Binet test are discredited by the author's contention that "in practice, I believe that each doctor should make his own system of tests." The second part of the book deals with normal mental development. Language development, a special interest of the author, serves as a frame for a discussion of childhood. There is also a Freudian discussion of instincts and morals. Normal development is conceived of as a series of rather well defined stages. The third part, dealing with pathological deviations of development, is a long discussion of the medico-psychiatric syndromes having an organic basis, those having an obscure origin, and those of purely psychic basis. Part Four includes a general discussion of the nature of education and platitudinous suggestions for establishing desirable habits and attitudes in children. Subjects discussed include teaching habits of clean-

liness, the necessity of teaching but one language during early childhood, the use of toys, learning a vocabulary, and instruction in general. The last part of the book is devoted to therapeutic methods. In the section dealing with the somatic approach, drugs and even dosages are frequently mentioned. In the longer section devoted to mental treatment, psychoanalytic methods are suggested as useful in the treatment of a large number of mental disorders.

The style of book is familiar and pleasing but the psychologist will find little here which is new concerning mental development. The book is a compilation of opinions and in support of its conclusions nothing more is given than the occasional name of some scholar. Experimental evidence for the ideas presented is absent: indeed, the book is not at all quantitative in its approach. There is a bibliography of ten works, a table of contents, a very good outline at the beginning of each chapter, and, for a French book, an excellent index of subjects treated and authors mentioned.

EDWARD L. CLARK

Northwestern University

Nursing as a Profession. By ESTHER LUCILE BROWN. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1936. Pp. 120. 75¢.

The author of this monograph has gathered together in a compact little volume the most salient facts covering nursing in its past, present and future aspects. She presents the growth of nursing into a profession, describes nursing schools and their standards, both past and present, and the aims and accomplishments of the national organizations concerned with nursing and nursing education.

To those interested in present trends and future possibilities in nursing education and the standards of the profession, the latter part of the book will be most interesting. The findings and recommendations of recent studies by national organizations of the profession are presented and analyzed. Needed means for controlling standards are emphasized.

This study should prove invaluable, not only to members of the profession, to doctors and social workers, but to all lay groups and board members interested in any of the phases of nursing.

AMELIA H. BAKER

Northwestern University

BOOKS RECEIVED

- Some American Pioneers in Social Welfare.* By Edith Abbott. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xi+189. \$1.00.
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- Physicians and Medical Care.* By Esther L. Brown. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1937. Pp. 202. 75¢.
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- Progress and Catastrophe.* By Stanley Casson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937. Pp. ix+264. \$2.75.
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- History of Political Philosophy.* By Thomas I. Cook. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1936. Pp. xviii+725. \$4.00.
- The Birth of China.* By Herrlee Glessner Creel. New York: Reynal and Hitchcock, 1937. Pp. 402. \$3.75.
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- Soviet Agricultural Reorganization and the Bread-Grain Situation.* Wheat Studies, Vol. XIII, No. 7, April 1937. Stanford University: Food Research Institute. Pp. 67. \$1.00.
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